

# JOURNAL

*of the*

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION  
*of* COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS



APRIL, 1944

VOLUME NINETEEN

NUMBER THREE



## AMERICAN ASSOCIATION *of* COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

---

### · CONTENTS ·

THE UNITED STATES ARMED FORCES INSTITUTE . . . . .	<i>Frank O. Copley</i>	287
REVIEW OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE PLACEMENT AT WISCONSIN, 1930-1943 . . . . .	<i>Frederic D. Cheydleur</i>	295
SELECTION OF STUDENTS FOR COUNTY SCHOLARSHIPS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS . . . . .	<i>J. Thomas Hastings and Donald A. Grossman</i>	317
AN EXPERIMENT IN TEACHING POST-WAR PROBLEMS . . . . .	<i>Ben A. Arneson</i>	324
THE FINAL MARK CONSIDERED AS A SYNTHESIS OF GRADES . . . . .	<i>H. M. Cox, F. S. Harper, and R. D. Scott</i>	332
TOWARD THE BETTER TEACHING OF HISTORY . . . . .	<i>Philip D. Jordan</i>	338
SOCIAL CRISES AND EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS . . . . .	<i>J. Watson Wilson</i>	345
THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF NAVAL PERSONNEL . . . . .	<i>Harry E. Elder</i>	355
DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATION . . . . .	<i>Harold D. Griffin</i>	360
THE SELECTION OF V-12 TRAINEES . . . . .	<i>W. S. Hoffman</i>	365
EDITORIAL COMMENT . . . . .		368
BOOK REVIEWS . . . . .		373
IN THE JOURNALS . . . . .		385
THE COLLEGES AND THE WAR EFFORT . . . . .		387
IN THE OFFICE . . . . .		394
THE QUESTION BOX . . . . .		396
REPORTED TO US . . . . .		398
THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES . . . . .		403
PROGRAM OF THIRTY-FIRST CONVENTION . . . . .		405
DIRECTORY OF REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS . . . . .		411
EMPLOYMENT SERVICE . . . . .		413

---

## Contributors to This Number

BEN A. ARNESON is Professor of Political Science at Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio. The Post-War Course about which he writes is not the first instance in which a group of O.W.U. professors have collaborated. Some years ago Mr. Arneson and three colleagues published "A Gateway to the Social Sciences," one of the first texts to integrate the social sciences for students at the college level. Mr. Arneson is also author of "Elements of Constitutional Law," and of various studies of government in Scandinavian countries.

FREDERIC D. CHEYDLEUR is the author of various studies in French language and literature. Besides constructing and devising a half-dozen new-type French tests and editing the *French Idiom List* and the Ball, Meylan, and Ball *Introduction to French Grammar*, he has contributed many articles to modern language reviews and pedagogical journals. He is Professor of French and Director of Placement and Attainment Examinations at the University of Wisconsin.

FRANK O. COPLEY is Director of Admissions with Advanced Standing, College of Literature, Science, and the Arts, University of Michigan.

H. M. COX is Director of the Bureau of Instructional Research, University of Nebraska.

HARRY E. ELDER is Registrar and Director of Student Programs and Placement at the Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute.

HAROLD D. GRIFFIN is on leave from the Nebraska State Teachers College at Wayne, and is an officer in the armed forces.

DONALD A. GROSSMAN is the Examiner in the Registrar's Office at the University of Illinois. He has supervision over admissions and the awarding of undergraduate scholarships.

F. S. HARPER is Assistant Professor and Coordinator of Freshman Instruction in Mathematics at the University of Nebraska.

J. THOMAS HASTINGS is Technical Director of the High School Testing Bureau and Associate in Education and Personnel at the University of Illinois. He has contributed to educational journals on problems of examination construction and interpretation.

PHILIP D. JORDAN, Associate Professor of History at Miami University, prepared one of the research reports for the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges, is editor of the Teachers' Section of the *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, and is the author of books and articles in the fields of history and history teaching.

R. D. SCOTT is Professor of Modern English Drama and is in charge of instruction in Freshman English at the University of Nebraska.

J. WATSON WILSON is Associate Director of the New Haven (Conn.) Junior College, and also Associate Director of the New Haven County E.S.M.W.T. program.



om  
at  
ned

mi-  
Uni-  
ion  
of

ssor  
ruc-  
y of

Di-  
Bu-  
and  
nois.  
our-  
con-

ofes-  
pre-  
r the  
in  
the  
hippi  
the  
ields

dern  
f in-  
the

Di-  
Jun-  
ector  
W.T.



*Left: The Main Building*

## The University of Alaska



*Above: Aurora Borealis over the Campus*



*Left: Approach to the Main Building through the Birch Grove*

# JOURNAL

*of the*

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION  
of COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

## The United States Armed Forces Institute

FRANK O. COPLEY

THE United States Armed Forces Institute is an outgrowth of the U. S. Army Institute, founded in 1942 for the purpose of aiding service men to turn to profit their leisure hours. With the subsequent expansion of both army and navy, the work of the Institute increased, in spite of the more strenuous character of military training, as more and more men applied for the educational opportunities it had to offer. Eventually all branches of the armed services were included within its purview, it became the joint project of the War and Navy

### THE FRONTISPIECE

The University of Alaska, northernmost institution of higher learning in the world, is located near Fairbanks at 64° 51' 21" north latitude. The campus is situated on a hillside facing south and east, and commands a sweeping view of the Alaska Range. To the south may be seen, on fine days, the highest peak in North America, Mt. McKinley, which rises 20,300 feet above sea level.

The Alaska Agricultural College and School of Mines, opened in 1922, became in 1935 the University of Alaska. President Charles E. Bunnell, who has headed the institution since its founding, celebrated the twentieth anniversary of his installation on the day Pearl Harbor was bombed.

The student body, which comes from many parts of the States as well as from the Territory of Alaska, is predominantly self-supporting. Men students outnumber women two to one, which reflects the ratio of the population as a whole, since this is still more or less a pioneer country.

Since the war, many changes have taken place. These are principally the occupation of the greater part of the campus by units of the U. S. Army, and the institution of night classes for civilians and army personnel who are unable to attend day classes. Archeological and paleontological research has been suspended for the duration, but work in the museum is continuing. The University has one of the world's finest collections of Eskimo material.

Departments, its name was changed to indicate its broader scope, and both army and navy men and women were assigned to its staff. Its central office, in Madison, Wisconsin, is manned by a dozen or more army and navy officers and over a hundred enlisted men and women of both services.

The functions of the Institute have expanded with its size. Originally set up merely to facilitate the pursuit of correspondence courses by service men, it has now become an educational agency which not only assists men in furthering their education through correspondence courses offered by over eighty co-operating colleges and universities, but also offers a list of sixty-four courses of its own. It collects and records the results of the course-work, and in the case of its own courses, provides the appropriate examinations together with a grading system of its own.

In addition to this, the Institute, when requested to do so by the individual concerned, gets together the records of service men who have completed the training given in any one of the countless Army and Navy Service Schools. These schools, which must not be confused with the A.S.T.P., V-12, and other training programs offered under government contract by civilian educational institutions, are parts of army and navy training, given by staffs of service men at training centers. Their work covers nearly every phase of military activity beyond basic training, and has the immediate purpose of supplying to the armed services men qualified to perform specific needed functions, from airplane maintenance and repair to the operation of radar.

Corollary to the above is the Institute's collecting of the records of men who, whether or not they have had special training in or out of the services, have held an army or navy service job which requires for its successful execution skills or knowledge of one kind or another. In many cases these records would be merely supplementary to the individual's record in the Service School or in a civilian school, but in some instances the service job record may for the first time reduce to tangible form qualifications acquired by a man either through his own efforts or as an apprentice. Here, for example, the self-educated radio operator, interpreter, mathematician, etc., who has served in one of these capacities in the army or navy may have placed on paper in an educationally useful form the results of the training which he has pursued by his own efforts.

Even these activities do not exhaust the list of functions of the

Institute. Mention has been made of the examinations provided by the Institute for men who take one or another of its own sixty-four courses. These tests, devised by the Institute staff, and styled "end of course examinations," are paralleled by a set entitled "subject examinations," the intent of which is similar to that of the service job record. Any man who feels qualified to do so may take any of these subject examinations and thus reduce to an educationally useful record some knowledge or skill he has acquired through self-education or experience. The subject examinations may, of course, be taken as well by men who have received formal training; in these cases the record would be merely supplementary to some previous one. It might, to be sure, show how much of a skill or knowledge a man had retained after a lapse of time since he had had his formal schooling and thus provide educational data of considerable significance.

Finally, the Institute has prepared a battery of four tests of "general educational development" (G.E.D. tests), the purpose of which is to show the level of intellectual maturity which the man has reached during his military service, whether or not he has had special training of any kind. The tests cover "correctness and effectiveness of expression", "interpretation of reading materials in the social studies", "interpretation of reading materials in the natural sciences", and "interpretation of literary materials". These are not subject examinations, and do not necessarily indicate the acquisition of specific skills or knowledge. Rather, they are intended to show, by comparison with national norms, the general intellectual competence of the individual.

Any service man is entitled to take advantage of the courses offered under the auspices of the Institute, and may apply on the proper forms for any course for which he feels he has the prerequisite preparation. The correspondence courses cover nearly the whole field of college education, from accounting to zoology, and include many vocational and technical subjects. Those offered by the Institute itself are examined by the Institute by means of its "end of course" examinations, which are of the objective type; the others are examined by the co-operating schools in the customary manner. Examinations are supervised by an officer of the man's unit, in most cases the Special Services Officer. When the man has completed his course and taken his examination he may request the Institute to record the results and transmit them to the institution at which he wishes to obtain academic credit. Such records, it should be emphasized, are



made only upon request of the service man concerned. Forms for such requests, called "Request for Report of Educational Achievement," are provided by the Institute and may be obtained by the man himself or by any educational institution for transmission to such of its students as may wish to obtain credit in this way.

Again upon receipt of a "request for Report of Educational Achievement" from the service man, the Institute will assemble his records at the Army or Navy Service Schools to which he may have been assigned for training, and transmit these to any educational institution he may designate. Records of any man's performance in an army or navy service job may be similarly requested and transmitted. The "subject examinations" and tests for general educational development will be given to any service man at his request, to be made on a form called "Application for U.S.A.F.I. Test or Examination," and the results of these will also be recorded and forwarded to the school to which the man expresses his desire that they be sent. The Institute expects that any individual's records can be assembled and transmitted within two months after his request for this service has been received.

Of special interest to the schools which must read and interpret these official reports is the information which they will contain. This may be tabulated as follows:

- (1) Correspondence Courses given by the U.S.A.F.I. and tested by "end of course" examination: (a) name of course, (b) brief description of course, (c) grade ("with distinction", "satisfactory", or "unsatisfactory").
- (2) Correspondence Courses given by co-operating institutions: (a) name of course, (b) grade (according to regular system of institution concerned).
- (3) Army-Navy Service Schools: (a) names of courses studied, (b) brief description of each course, (c) contact hours, (d) grades (numerical).
- (4) Army-Navy Service Jobs: (a) description of duties of job and of skills and knowledge prerequisite to it (b) rating of performance.
- (5) U.S.A.F.I. "subject examinations": (a) subject of examination, (b) brief description of topics covered, (c) grade (as in 1 above).
- (6) Tests for general educational development: a percentage rating in each of the four tests showing the standing of the service man with relation to the national norms for civilians at given educational levels (e.g. a man might be rated as "doing better than 85% of college sophomores").

It will readily be seen that this information is as clear, precise, and usable as that provided by most college transcripts. There remain the questions of the type and amount of college credit which may properly be granted to a returning service man upon presentation of U.S.A.F.I. records.

The correspondence courses offered by the U.S.A.F.I. itself are chiefly vocational in character and are for the most part on the high school level except for the work in mathematics, which goes through calculus. A student who presents records showing satisfactory completion of one or more of the college mathematics courses might well be entitled to credit upon recommendation of the department. Departmental review would be necessary, at least at first, since the U.S.A.F.I. does not provide a credit evaluation of its courses or guarantee that they parallel regular college work.

The other correspondence courses, those offered by the co-operating institutions, may be accepted for credit, upon presentation of U.S.A.F.I. records in the same way in which such courses are evaluated for civilians, that is, if they are of appropriate character, and do not exceed in total credit value the maximum number of hours allowed for correspondence and extension work.

U.S.A.F.I. records showing satisfactory completion of one or more army or navy service schools will require careful study, since these schools are giving training of the most diverse character. Much of their work, e.g. in gunnery, aircraft maintenance, etc., can be properly evaluated only as military or naval science; a large part, too, will be on sub-college levels; nevertheless, there will be a goodly number of records which will show completion of work truly collegiate in character, such as the courses in electronics. Except in clear-cut cases, where the course-descriptions reveal work obviously parallel to that of the college itself, it will doubtless be necessary to submit these records to the appropriate departments for evaluation. Except when it is otherwise recommended by the departments, the credit hour value of such courses as are accepted for credit may be easily computed on the basis that fifteen contact hours equal one semester hour.

The records of service jobs, since they are by definition records of *service* and not of *training*, will seldom if ever entitle the student to academic credit, no matter how much skill or knowledge they may reveal him to possess. This is because of the fact that in nearly all collegiate institutions academic credits are based not on skill or

knowledge but on formal educational experience. A student, in other words, does not receive credit toward his degree because he knows a subject but because he has pursued and successfully passed a course in that subject. This fact, however, does not destroy the usefulness of service job records. Even if the student cannot receive academic credit for his service job, the skill and knowledge revealed by his successful execution of the job may in many instances entitle him to special consideration, e.g. in the waiving of prerequisites for advanced courses or in the waiving or modifying of the various graduation requirements. Certainly the service job records will be invaluable to his academic advisers, since they will furnish sound evidence of his aptitude for specific kinds of work.

Much the same must be said of the records of U.S.A.F.I. "subject examinations", since these, too, are records either of skill and knowledge obtained otherwise than through formal education, or corroborative evidence of formal education for which other records exist. Here again little if any academic credit will be obtainable, but the information thus provided may entitle the student to exemption from prerequisites or to modification of specific requirements, and may be of some assistance to advisers in planning his course of study. The test results may be of particular significance in the case of a man who had his formal training in the examined subject a number of years in the past; a strong score on the examination will show that he knows the subject *now*, and will thus be a better indication of his knowledge than a grade, however excellent, on a transcript many years old.

The G.E.D. tests were not devised primarily with the idea that their results would entitle the man to academic credit; it is unlikely, therefore, that they will be used in this way, at least at the college level, although some high school systems are said to be planning to use them for secondary credit. This does not mean that these tests are without significance to the service man; on the contrary, they may have very real value. Specifically, a high score in the test for "correctness and effectiveness of expression" might well entitle the student to exemption from the English Composition requirement; high scores in the other tests might allow his exemption from specific prerequisite courses in the fields of social studies, natural sciences, and literature. Thus although the test results would usually not hasten his progress toward his degree, they might permit him to proceed at an earlier time than usual to more advanced work.

The G.E.D. tests would therefore be of significance chiefly to the freshman and sophomore; in the nature of things they cannot be of



much help to the upperclassman. However, it is for the high school student who has not yet entered college that these tests will be of the greatest assistance, if only the colleges are willing to make the necessary adjustments. It is this group of prospective students, indeed, who will have the largest claim on our attention in the post-war period. These men will fall largely into two classes: (1) those who left high school at the age of 17 or 18 before they had completed their senior year, and (2) those who had left high school for financial or other reasons some years before the war and now are anxious to continue their education. Both these groups will be composed of relatively mature men; few, if any, will be under twenty; many will be considerably older than that; all will have had experiences which will have led them far along the road of adulthood. To ask these men to return to high school to complete units and subject sequences would be futile and unjust; their education will have to be continued, if at all, by the colleges and universities.

For these men, the G.E.D. tests can prove a great help. It is scarcely conceivable that any among them who are mentally of college calibre could not show by these tests a general educational competence at least equal to that of the average college freshman. Whenever such is the case, the college might well consider waiving ordinary entrance requirements and admitting these students to college, possibly on some sort of special basis. Obviously, some of them will not have had, even during their service experience, work which is prerequisite to the successful pursuit of certain college courses. This is particularly true in the case of mathematics, for in a great many instances a student must have had at least 1 year of algebra and 1 year of geometry in high school in order to be able to continue his study of this subject in college. In some cases, too, the training in English may prove to have been deficient. There seems to be no remedy for this difficulty except to establish special courses in sub-freshman work in these subjects for the benefit of returning service men.

If admissions were to be granted in this way on the basis of the G.E.D. tests, one further problem would remain to be solved, the problem of the high school diploma. Many professions require this diploma for admission to practice; in some instances its requirement is a matter of law. Obviously the colleges are in no position to waive such regulations. Some provision would have to be made, therefore, for transferring back to the student's high school the sub-freshman work which he took at the college, and to add to that sufficient college credits to enable him to get his diploma.

In all of these ways, then, the work of the U.S.A.F.I. can be of the greatest value both to service men and to the institutions they may wish to attend. The information they are gathering is being put in clear, precise, and usable form, and reduces to matters of record nearly all possible educational experiences which a service man might have. The great single exception here is that of the college-located contract programs, such as the A.S.T.P., V-12, etc. The U.S.A.F.I. will not assemble or transmit these records, which will have to be obtained directly from the institutions concerned in the form of such transcripts as they may issue.

Preparation for the use of all kinds of service records suggests that the following measures be considered for action by liberal arts colleges at the earliest possible moment:

- (1) Catalogs of correspondence courses being offered through the U.S.A.F.I. should be obtained from each of the co-operating institutions.
- (2) Sample tests of the U.S.A.F.I. "end of course", and "subject" examinations should be obtained from the Cooperative Testing Service in New York and should be submitted to the appropriate departments for judgment as to their reliability.
- (3) Samples of the G.E.D. tests should be procured from the same source and submitted to study to determine on what basis they may be used for admission to the College.
- (4) The problem of sub-freshman courses for returning servicemen should be referred to an appropriate committee for study.
- (5) The College should begin to make arrangements with the high schools to accept its college credits, sub-freshman and other, as satisfying the requirements for their diplomas.
- (6) The College should prepare, for transmission with its transcripts, brief descriptions of all courses it has offered on government contract programs, since these descriptions will not be provided by the U.S.A.F.I.
- (7) Letters should be prepared to be sent to all former students now in service, urging them to take U.S.A.F.I. tests and to have the U.S.A.F.I. assemble their service educational records for transmission to the College authorities.
- (8) Plans should be made for the advice and assistance of returning service-men, for the evaluating of their service educational experience, and for such equitable and academically sound adjustment of existing systems, rules, and regulations as may ensure to every returning service man a status which will fairly represent his actual educational attainments.

# Review of Foreign Language Placement at Wisconsin, 1930-1943

FREDERIC D. CHEYDLEUR

## RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PLACEMENT TESTING PROGRAM AT WISCONSIN AND THE BUREAU OF GUIDANCE AND RECORDS AND OTHER EXAMINING BOARDS

AS in other sections of the country, the articulation between secondary schools and colleges has been a very keen problem at Wisconsin. For the purpose of approaching and solving this adjustment in a more orderly and scientific way than had heretofore existed, the Bureau of Guidance and Records was started at the University of Wisconsin in 1927, and the year after the Freshman Orientation Period in charge of a special committee was established. Both were under the able direction of Registrar F. O. Holt (now Dean of the Extension Division) and V. A. C. Henmon, professor of psychology and educational adviser of the Modern Foreign Language Study. These two organizations have three principal aims in related areas: to study the connection between native ability (intelligence is understood) and academic success at the University; to study the means of a valid objective sectioning in Freshman English; and to study the validity of placement tests in foreign languages. Approximately fifty bulletins bearing on the various aims and achievements of the Bureau and its related offices and committees have been published, the most recent and the most informative of which we have listed below.<sup>1</sup> Doubtless the initial success of the Bureau paved the way for the statewide Wisconsin Co-operative Testing Program launched in 1928-29 by the school and college authorities of the state. By common consent of the administrative officers of the University, the author was entrusted with the testing in foreign languages. Funds for this work were furnished through grants from the Modern Foreign Language Study, the Co-operative Test Service of New York, the Regents' unassigned funds, the Research Committee of the Graduate School, and the Bureau of Guidance and Records under its Executive Director, Curtis Merriman, Registrar.

<sup>1</sup> Gustav Froelich, *The Prediction of Academic Success at the University of Wisconsin 1909-1941* (Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin. Published by the Bureau of Guidance and Records, October, 1941.)

# THE PRINCIPAL REASONS FOR THE ADOPTION AND CONTINUED USE OF PLACEMENT TESTS AT THE UNIVERSITY

While the accumulative evidence in favor of the introduction and regular employment of placement tests here has been set forth by the writer in various studies<sup>2-6</sup> and by V. A. C. Henmon<sup>7</sup> and by Ben Wood<sup>8</sup> in authoritative works on testing, it seems desirable for the sake of clarity to recapitulate at this point the principal reasons for this pioneer educational practice at Wisconsin that has served as a model for numerous other institutions. In order to save space we shall omit most of the supporting data which may be found in abundance in the references below and we shall borrow from them now and then with only brief acknowledgement.

*First, because they have the following technical advantages over the old-type test:*

(a) They are quite objective in contrast with the ordinary examinations which are subjective in nature.

(b) They are far more comprehensive than the older form, the aim being to sample the course of study as extensively as possible within certain time limits.

(c) Unlike the old-type test they are a sort of yardstick made to measure not merely the achievement of a semester but that of several semesters or years in comparable terms.

(d) They may be scored far more quickly and economically than the essay examination, the cost being about one-tenth that of correcting

<sup>2</sup> F. D. Cheydleur, "Results and Significance of the New Type of Modern Language Tests," *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XII, No. 7 (April, 1928), pp. 513-531.

<sup>3</sup> F. D. Cheydleur, "The Relative Reliability of the Old and New Type Modern Language Examinations," *The French Review*, Vol. II, No. 6 (May, 1929), pp. 530-550.

<sup>4</sup> F. D. Cheydleur, "U. W. Tests for Freshmen in Languages," *Wisconsin Journal of Education*, Vol. LXIV, No. 3 (November, 1931), p. 144.

<sup>5</sup> F. D. Cheydleur, "Placement and Attainment Examinations in Foreign Languages at the University of Wisconsin, 1930-1933," *The Educational Record*, Vol. 15, No. 2 (April, 1934), pp. 176-191.

<sup>6</sup> F. D. Cheydleur, "The Case for More Objective Tests in Higher Education," *Education*, Vol. 57, No. 7 (March, 1937), pp. 408-416.

<sup>7</sup> V. A. C. Henmon, *Achievement Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages*, Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages. (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1929.)

<sup>8</sup> Ben D. Wood, *New York Experiments with New-Type Modern Language Tests*, a publication of the above committees. (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1929.)

the old-type tests like the College Entrance Boards and the Regents Papers of New York.

(e) They are far more reliable and valid than the essay type, being from one and a quarter to nearly three times as dependable as has been demonstrated by educationalists and language men through special investigations. (See references 2-8.)

*Second, because they have the following curricular advantages over the essay examinations:*

(a) They may be used to compare the achievement of students in various countries, as Canada, England, and the United States, and they may serve to compare the standards of different sections of the same country, of different cities, or of different schools.

(b) They may be utilized as a basis for more scientific classification of students than is now obtained by the unit or credit system alone, assuring more homogeneous groups.

(c) They may serve for diagnostic purposes to determine the place where stress of study or teaching should be laid; i.e., on vocabulary, grammar, reading, or composition.

(d) They may be employed for determining not merely effective studying but also effective teaching.

(e) They may be helpful in establishing the value of various methods such as the direct, the grammar-translation, the eclectic, or the reading.

(f) They may aid in showing progress (or the opposite) from semester to semester, or from year to year.

(g) They may replace or supplement the old-type tests in determining final term or semester grades.

(h) In short they may serve for educational guidance in evaluating the effectiveness of study, of teaching, and of curricula.

*Third, because all in all they have proved themselves to be an impartial and reliable yardstick for measuring in comparable terms the commonest objectives of language instruction.*

(a) An early attempt to solve the articulation of high school and college work was made in the French department by experimenting with the reading method, which has as its main objective the direct comprehension of the written page. This research was carried on with the help of highly standardized tests. Three trials of this method were made here between 1924 and 1931, and although the last one demonstrated rather conclusively that the percentage of A's, B's, and C's increased from 58 to 71 and that of D's, E's, F's and Incompletes



decreased from 41 to 28, the conservatives in the department restored the eclectic method in the elementary and intermediate courses.<sup>9</sup>

(b) A second step toward a better adjustment between school and college levels was made in connection with the administration of many thousands of the American Council French Grammar Tests—Selection Type, the American Council Alpha Tests in French, German, and Spanish, and the Columbia Research Bureau Tests here and in hundreds of other institutions throughout the country from 1925 to 1929. As these tests proved to be highly reliable and valid, the data obtained from their wide use as indicated above permitted dependable comparisons to be made between classes at the same or different semester levels in a great variety of situations. For instance, one school yielded a norm two and a half times as high as that of another at the same level and a second school did three times as good work as another in the fourth, fifth, and sixth semester levels. These and scores of other striking differences of achievement pointed the way to a placement program for a more homogeneous classification of students which led to more effective teaching and studying and a consequent reduction in student mortality.<sup>10</sup>

(c) A third step in advance was taken in September, 1928, when intelligence tests were administered during the Orientation Period to all incoming Freshmen and the American Council Alpha French Test, Form A, to those intending to continue the subject. It was found that the entering French students with 2, 4, 6, and 8 semesters of high school preparation were 17, 7, 14, and 3 points respectively below the national norm in percentile rank. (Later it was discovered that the same unfavorable condition existed in regard to the other languages, since the weighted average percentile norms for 1138 French, Spanish, and German entrants in 1929 and 1930 at Wisconsin were 11 points below the standard norms.) At the end of the first semester at mid-years in 1929 at the University, Form B of the same standardized test given in the fall was administered to these same entrants and it was

<sup>9</sup> F. D. Cheydleur, "The Reading Method versus the Eclectic Method in Teaching French. A Preliminary Experiment at Wisconsin," *The French Review*, Vol. IV, No. 3 (January, 1931), pp. 198-214. Cf. by the same author, "Attainment by the 'Reading' Method. A Comparative Study in about Fifty Institutions, 1930-1933" in Coleman's *Experiments and Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, (University of Chicago Press, 1934), pp. 100-144.

<sup>10</sup> See specific references in footnotes 2-9 and also F. D. Cheydleur, "Mortality of Modern Language Students: Its Causes and Prevention," *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XVII, No. 2 (November, 1932), pp. 104-136.

disclosed that they had made 21, 17, 26, and 20 percentile gains in second, third, fourth, and fifth semester college work where they normally belonged, according to the old high school unit system. The practical use of the objective language test as an instrument for gauging past and present performance in respect to student and teacher efficiency was brought out by this early experiment in a most convincing manner.<sup>11</sup>

(d) A fourth step forward was the adoption of the standardized language test for placement purposes on the strength of its predictive value. As significant as the discovery was that the Wisconsin entrants in foreign languages were below the national norm and that they showed decided improvement by raising their norms considerably above the national norms, still more significant was the revelation of the predictive value of standardized tests for placement purposes. It should be stated at this time that in keeping with the improvement shown by French entrants after one semester here, the Spanish and German entrants made a fine showing through the administration of the Columbia Research Bureau tests in all departments some years later.

#### TESTS AND METHODS USED FOR PLACEMENT AT WISCONSIN

As inquiries have often been made concerning the tests employed for classifying foreign language students upon entrance in the University, we list those most extensively utilized: the American Council Alpha Tests, the American Council on Education Reading Tests, the Co-operative Test Service Tests, and the Columbia Research Bureau Tests. We have also had at our disposal the scores made by entering Freshmen on various intelligence tests such as the American Council, the Ohio State, the Otis, and the Henmon-Nelson administered during the Freshmen Orientation Periods.

Before undertaking the presentation and the analysis of the data assembled for this study, we wish to explain the method used for placement purposes. Our plan is to leave in normal position those students whose mean scores on the tests are approximately the same as the national norms for the high school units or college credits offered. Next, to promote one, two, three, or four semesters those students

<sup>11</sup> F. D. Cheydeur, "A Preliminary Report on the Use of Placement Tests in Modern Languages at the University of Wisconsin, 1928-1930." Prepared for the Bureau of Guidance and Records, University of Wisconsin. *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XV, No. 4 (January, 1931), pp. 262-280.

TABLE I  
FINAL GRADES AT MID-YEARS, 1931, 1932, 1933, 1934, 1935, 1936, 1937, 1938, 1939, 1940, 1941, 1942, AND 1943 OF 7905 FRESHMEN  
AND TRANSFERS WHO TOOK THE PLACEMENT TESTS IN FRENCH, SPANISH, GERMAN, AND LATIN IN SEPTEMBER,  
1930, 1931, 1932, 1933, 1934, 1935, 1936, 1937, 1938, 1939, 1940, 1941, AND 1942 AND WHO WERE PROPERLY PLACED IN  
ACCORDANCE WITH THESE TESTS

Placement	A's	%	B's	%	C's	%	D's	%	E's	%	F's	%	Total	%
Normal	986	(15.5)	2112	(33.2)	2100	(33.0)	823	(13.0)	103	(1.6)	231	(3.6)	6355	(80.4)
Advanced	491	(39.2)	545	(43.5)	187	(14.9)	24	(1.9)	3	(.2)	2	(.2)	1252	(15.8)
Retarded	9	(3.0)	50	(16.8)	98	(32.9)	61	(20.5)	20	(6.7)	60	(20.1)	298	(3.8)
Total	1486	(18.8)	2707	(34.2)	2385	(30.2)	908	(11.5)	126	(1.6)	293	(3.7)	7905	(100.0)



whose mean scores on the tests are about the same as the national norms at the first, second, third, or fourth semester levels above normal placement. Finally, to demote, for example a year (one college semester), a student who offers three years of high school credit, but whose test shows no more than two years' achievement when gauged by the national norm. The promoted student is allowed extra credits toward the college language requirements for various degrees but not toward graduation. The wording of the Fish Report made placement mandatory and not optional, and was so interpreted by the Dean, the steering committee of the Fish Curriculum (whose duty it was to see that the various provisions of the New Curriculum were functioning), and by the director of placement tests. Furthermore, it should be stated that the following provision was made by the foregoing college authorities: first, to facilitate matters, certain representatives in each language department were appointed to look after the placement and attainment examinations under the leadership of the director of these examinations; then it was generally agreed that all placements would be given a six weeks' trial, i.e., up to the time of the first departmental examinations and reports to the Deans. If at that time any student felt that he was misclassified, upon recommendation of his instructor, he was to be permitted to take an equivalent test and be reclassified if the results justified the change.<sup>12</sup>

We should call attention to the fact that in addition to the national norms on the placement tests we also possess University of Wisconsin norms for several of these tests obtained from their administration from time to time to our own students. Such information has functioned as a supplementary safety valve in our placement work.

RESULTS OF THE PLACEMENT TESTS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN IN FRENCH, GERMAN, LATIN, AND SPANISH FOR THE YEARS 1930-1942 SET FORTH IN TABLE I, WHERE CLASSIFICATION IN ACCORDANCE WITH THESE TESTS IS INDICATED

During the thirteen years that the placement tests have been used at Wisconsin and action has been taken on them, 7905 students have followed the directions given them and have taken the courses assigned to them. (See Table I.) Of the 6355 students held stationary (considered normal in accordance with their previous records) all but 5.2 per cent passed the various class requirements in the subject at the

<sup>12</sup> C. R. Fish (Chairman) Document 362. On file in the office of the secretary of the faculty, University of Wisconsin, June 1930.

TABLE II  
TABLE SHOWING FINAL GRADES AT MID-YEARS OF STUDENTS WHO WERE ADVANCED ONE OR MORE SEMESTERS IN  
FRENCH, GERMAN, SPANISH AND LATIN AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN BY PLACEMENT TESTS FROM  
SEPTEMBER, 1930 THROUGH SEPTEMBER, 1942

	A's		B's		C's		D's		E's		F's		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Advanced one semester														
French	196	40.5	207	42.8	71	14.7	9	1.9			1	.2	484	
German	64	34.4	86	46.2	34	18.3	2	1.1					186	
Spanish	29	33.0	36	40.9	20	22.7	3	3.4					88	
Latin	1	11.1	5	55.6	3	33.3							9	
Totals	290	37.7	334	43.5	128	16.7	14	1.8			1	.1	767	100
Advanced two semesters														
French	56	38.1	67	45.6	22	15.0	2	1.4					147	
German	35	55.6	23	36.5	5	7.9							63	
Spanish	18	50.0	14	38.9	4	11.1							36	
Latin	5	83.3	1	16.7									6	
Totals	114	45.2	105	41.7	31	12.3	2	.8					252	100
Advanced three semesters														
French	11	42.3	12	46.2	2	7.7	1	3.8					26	
German	4	80.0	1	20.0									5	
Spanish	1	33.3	1	33.3	1	33.3							3	
Latin													0	
Totals	16	47.1	14	41.2	3	8.8	1	2.9					34	100
Advanced four semesters														
French	3	60.0	2	40.0									5	
German	2	66.7	1	33.3									3	
Spanish													0	
Latin													0	
Totals	5	62.5	3	37.5									8	100
Total Advancements Four languages	425	40.1	456	43.0	162	15.3	17	1.6			1	.1	1061	100

[illegible]

Total Advancements Four languages	425	40.1	456	43.0	162	15.3	17	1.6	1	.1	1061	100
--------------------------------------	-----	------	-----	------	-----	------	----	-----	---	----	------	-----

[illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible]

TABLE III  
SHOWING FINAL GRADES AT MID-YEARS OF THOSE STUDENTS WHO WERE ADVANCED ONE OR MORE SEMESTERS TO  
FRENCH 21a (FIFTH SEMESTER) AND THOSE WHO WERE NOT ADVANCED, 1930-1942. ALSO SHOWING FINAL GRADES  
OF A SAMPLING OF 21a STUDENTS FROM PREPLACEMENT PERIOD

	A's	B's	C's	D's	E's	F's	Total
Number and per cent advanced	82 (38.3%)	81 (37.9%)	40 (18.7%)	10 (4.7%)			213 (100%)
Number and per cent not advanced	448 (24.1%)	762 (41.0%)	491 (26.4%)	124 (6.8%)	15 (.8%)	18 (.9%)	1858 (100%)
Number and per cent preplacement	12 (11.0%)	52 (48.0%)	28 (26.0%)	14 (13.0%)	1 (1.0%)	1 (1.0%)	108 (100%)

TABLE IV  
SHOWING FINAL GRADES AT MID-YEARS OF THOSE STUDENTS WHO WERE ADVANCED ONE OR MORE SEMESTERS  
TO FRENCH 131 AND OTHER SEVENTH SEMESTER COURSES AND OF THOSE STUDENTS WHO WERE NOT ADVANCED  
BY PLACEMENT, 1930-1942. (FROM THE NOT ADVANCED GROUP 37 POST GRADUATE STUDENTS WERE EXCLUDED.)

	A's	B's	C's	D's	E's	F's	Total
Number advanced 1 semester	6	4	3				13
Number advanced 2 semesters	28	43	10				81
Number advanced 3 semesters	10	5					15
Number advanced 4 semesters	1						1
Number not advanced	45 (40.9%) 54 (25.4%)	52 (47.3%) 123 (57.7%)	13 (11.8%) 32 (15.0%)	4 (1.9%)			110 (100%) 213 (100%)

that of the 34 cases in the three semester group all but 1 or 98.3 per cent won satisfactory marks, that of 8 cases in the four semester group 5 made A's and 3, B's. Second, by comparing the bottom line of Table II with the top line or normal cases of Table I we discover that in round numbers the promoted students earned 40 per cent A's, 43 per cent B's, and 15 per cent C's while the normal students made 15 per cent A's, 33 per cent B's, and 33 per cent C's. In other words about 98 per cent of the promoted students made satisfactory grades compared with 81 per cent of the normal students. Third, by reading down the column of C's, B's, and A's (Table II) we note that the C's decrease from 16.7 per cent in the one semester group to 8.8 per cent in the third, that the B's decrease from 43.5 per cent in the lowest group to 37.5 per cent in the highest, *while the A's increase from 37.7 per cent in the first group to 62.5 per cent in the last group.*

It follows then from this demonstration that not only the promoted students make 98.4 per cent satisfactory grades as compared with 81 per cent such grades earned by the normals but that the same ratio practically holds for all four levels of promotions. Furthermore, the highest percentage of A's (41.1 per cent) and B's (43 per cent) earned by the promoted compared with the percentage of A's (15.5 per cent) and B's (33.2 per cent) won by the normals appears to disprove the contention sometimes made that the promoted students, especially those advanced more than one semester, risk losing honors.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY EVIDENCE FURNISHED BY FRENCH PLACEMENTS IN SUPPORT OF ADVANCING STUDENTS MORE THAN ONE SEMESTER

If we now proceed to examine the fifth semester data in Table III, we find that satisfactory and unsatisfactory marks of those advanced one or more semesters to French 21 (fifth semester work) to be 95 per cent and 5 per cent respectively. The corresponding per cents of those not advanced are 91.5 per cent and 8.5 per cent. And a chance sampling of the preplacement period yields 85 per cent satisfactory and 15 per cent unsatisfactory grades. A little mental calculation discloses that the advanced students have not only decidedly the edge on the other two categories in A's and B's but also have one and one-half times as many A's as those most advanced, and over three times as many A's as shown by the chance sampling of French 21 students taken from the preplacement period and consisting of five different classes.

One of the problems that has troubled the writer and his col-



laborators is that concerning the limits of advancement by the placement tests. We have already touched upon this question above, but we wish to add further evidence in support of the procedure that has been followed in the past thirteen years. In the early years oral and even written examinations supplementary to the placement tests were given to French students whose scores indicated promotion beyond second year college level, that is, into literature courses. Usually the placement test results have been reported to the various department representatives and instructors with demotions, normals, and promotions indicated. With the exception of about 5 per cent of the total number of cases involved, the directions have been followed by all concerned. When it was learned that the promoted cases in French were quite successful, the committee in charge decided that no one should be advanced beyond the elementary survey course (third year work) unless he be placed in the advanced survey course (fourth year work). The results of 72 cases that took the advanced survey by this arrangement and those of 38 others who were admitted to other fourth year courses are summarized below.

An examination of the high points of Table IV brings out the fact that all 110 students made satisfactory grades (A's, B's, and C's); this shows perfect prediction, judged by any pedagogical or statistical criterion. Furthermore, it is evident that they established a much better record than that made by the non-advanced students in the same courses for they earned 15.5 per cent more A's and had no D's. In addition, the data furnish definite proof that the students promoted two semesters did as well as the one semester cases, and that the three and four semester promotions did better than the one and two semester cases.

*How about subject matter lost by skipping courses?* In reply we can claim that in so far as the 72 cases that took the advanced rather than the elementary survey are concerned, they covered more literature and history than they would have at the lower level. *Second, but were they not penalized by being made to carry more difficult courses?* To meet this objection, a careful check was made on the reading ability of the advanced and non-advanced students which disclosed the following interesting facts. The average reading rate per hour for the advanced cases was 33 pages and the average preparation per lesson was 1.6 hours; for the non-advanced cases the average reading rate per hour was 32 pages and the average preparation per lesson was 1.6 hours. This information was gathered over a number of years

and does not include the 38 cases in other courses not controlled by the writer. At the end of the semester the writer has often administered a standardized test such as the American Council or the Co-operative test to the students included in this investigation which yielded the following results: the advanced students who took these tests made 88 per cent satisfactory grades, 12 per cent unsatisfactory; for the non-advanced students the per cents were 79 and 21 respectively. Here again, in the language aspects as in the literary matter the advanced students are distinctly superior to the non-advanced, those who were supposed to have absorbed more language and literature by not skipping courses.

#### THE EFFECT OF PLACEMENT AS REFLECTED IN FINAL GRADES IN SPANISH

Because of the limitations of space we shall have to condense much interesting data about Spanish results in placement. In general it may be asserted that the findings in this language confirm those made in French and serve to strengthen the case for the use of objective examinations for our purpose in higher education.

A scrutiny of Table V and a little calculation discloses that the per cent of satisfactory grades (A's, B's, and C's) in the preplacement period was 70 as compared with approximately 79 for the placement period for the last three years, leaving 30 per cent and 21 per cent unsatisfactory grades for the first and second groups respectively. Furthermore, it is to be observed that there are 2.5 per cent fewer drops for the placement period. Therefore, we find about the same degree of improvement in the first four semesters of Spanish as in French, which we believe has been brought about in large measure by the employment of placement tests as required by university regulations. Other conditioning factors undoubtedly come into the picture, e.g., it should be stated that in elementary Spanish courses as in the French and German elementary courses at Wisconsin the favorite language method for many years has been the eclectic; this practice preceded and has continued in the placement period and its influence for good or bad on both periods would probably be approximately the same if it could be measured in comparable terms.

A study of the advanced cases in Spanish in Table II demonstrates about the same high prediction of placement as in French. There are 97 per cent, 100 per cent, and 100 per cent satisfactory grades in the one, two, and three semester promotions respectively. Such fine results

TABLE V

THE PER CENT OF DROPS AND FINAL GRADES IN SPANISH 1a, 1b, 10a, AND 10b (FIRST, SECOND, THIRD, AND FOURTH SEMESTERS RESPECTIVELY) COMBINED FOR THE PREPLACEMENT PERIOD, 1919-1929, COMPARED WITH THE PER CENT OF DROPS AND GRADES IN THE SAME COURSES FOR THE PLACEMENT YEARS 1939-1942. IN COMPILING THE STATISTICS BELOW, THE PER CENT OF A's, B's, C's, D's, E's, F's (INCLUDING THOSE DROPPED WITH A FAILURE), AND INCOMPLETES, WAS BASED ON THE TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS LESS THE AUDITORS AND THOSE DROPPED WITHOUT A FAILURE.

	Enrolled	Drops		Total	A's	B's	C's	D's	E's	F's	Inc.	Total %
		No.	%									
Preplacement 1919-29	18547	1190	6.2	17397	10.2	26.8	33.0	16.8	2.5	8.0	1.7	99
Placement 1939-42	6373	244	3.7	6129	21.9	30.6	26.3	11.1	3.7	5.5	.9	100



should satisfy the demands of the most meticulous perfectionist in our midst, for their superiority stands out when we compare them with the findings of other studies dealing with the same subject.<sup>13</sup>

A glance at the results of advanced placements in German and Latin set forth in Table II together with a little mental arithmetic reveals about the same per cent of satisfactory and unsatisfactory grades as found in similar cases for French and Spanish. The satisfactory grades (A's, B's, and C's) in one, two, three, and four semester promotions in German are 99 per cent, 100 per cent, 100 per cent, and 100 per cent respectively. The satisfactory cases in one and two semester promotions in Latin are 100 per cent; there are no three and four semester promotions. Since these results again meet the claim that students advanced more than one semester risk losing satisfactory marks in comparison with one semester promotions or with normal placement cases, we are willing to rest the case.

#### OTHER USES OF PLACEMENT (OR ACHIEVEMENT) TESTS ILLUSTRATED BY GERMAN RESULTS IN THE FIRST TWO YEARS' WORK

Although the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability—Higher Form B was given near the beginning of the first semester of 1942-43 to all students in the first two years of French, German, and Spanish and, although the appropriate American Council on Education Reading Tests were administered to the same students in French and German and the Co-operative Spanish Test—Advanced Form O to the Spanish students, because of the unfavorable influence of war conditions we have decided to make use of the 1939 results in German as more typical of the basic language situation at the University of Wisconsin than that shown by the 1942-1943 testing mentioned. It should be recorded here, however, that notwithstanding the fact that the mental tests (2306) yielded a higher median score than the national norm, still the language tests disclosed a noticeable slump below the norms in first, second, and third semester French and a slump below the norms in third and fourth semester Spanish. Only in German did they furnish scores above the national norms in all semesters except the second.

It appears proper to state here that the American Council on Education French and German Reading Tests were chosen for the following reasons: they are highly standardized and are easily administered

<sup>13</sup>C. A. Smith, "High School Training and College Freshman Grades," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. XXXII, No. 6 (February, 1939), pp. 401-409.

and scored; they measure achievement in vocabulary and comprehension and take the average recitation period for the answers. The fact that they were selected by the Committee on Revision of Standards set up by the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and administered to the students in fifty-seven institutions in the Association seemed sufficient recommendation for their employment here.

1. *Superior Attainment Shown by Results of the American Council on Education German Reading Tests.* Earlier in this study it was stated that standardized language tests were given in the various departments to establish norms of achievement of our own students and also to learn about our own teacher efficiency. While the American Council on Education Reading Tests like most other new-type tests were designed for various purposes, their principal aim is to measure reading ability at different levels as this has been the main objective about which nearly all modern language teachers in this country agree. Let us examine then, with this objective in mind, the results of three administrations of this test at Wisconsin presented in Figure 1. The most casual glance will bring out the fact that at only one point in the four lines indicating the 1936, 1939, 1942 medians and the national norms, namely in 1b last year, has the achievement been below the norm. For convenience of comparison we are summarizing the results in the table below.

TABLE VI  
SHOWING MEDIANES OF THREE ADMINISTRATIONS OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION GERMAN READING TEST AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN IN THE FIRST FOUR SEMESTERS

	1 sem.	2 sem.	3 sem.	4 sem.
National Norm	28.8	42.3	50.1	64.1
May, 1936, U. W. medians	30.8	47.1	52.9	70.3
May, 1939, U. W. medians	29.6	53.4	68.3	72.4
Dec., 1942, U. W. medians	29.3	38.8	54.7	68.8

These figures speak for themselves, indicating as they do superior reading ability, particularly in 1939, at practically all points when compared with the national norms. This is fine achievement for both teachers and students.

2. *Showing overlapping, variability, and growth in attainment in individual classes on the American Council on Education German Reading Test administered at Wisconsin in May, 1939, to the first*

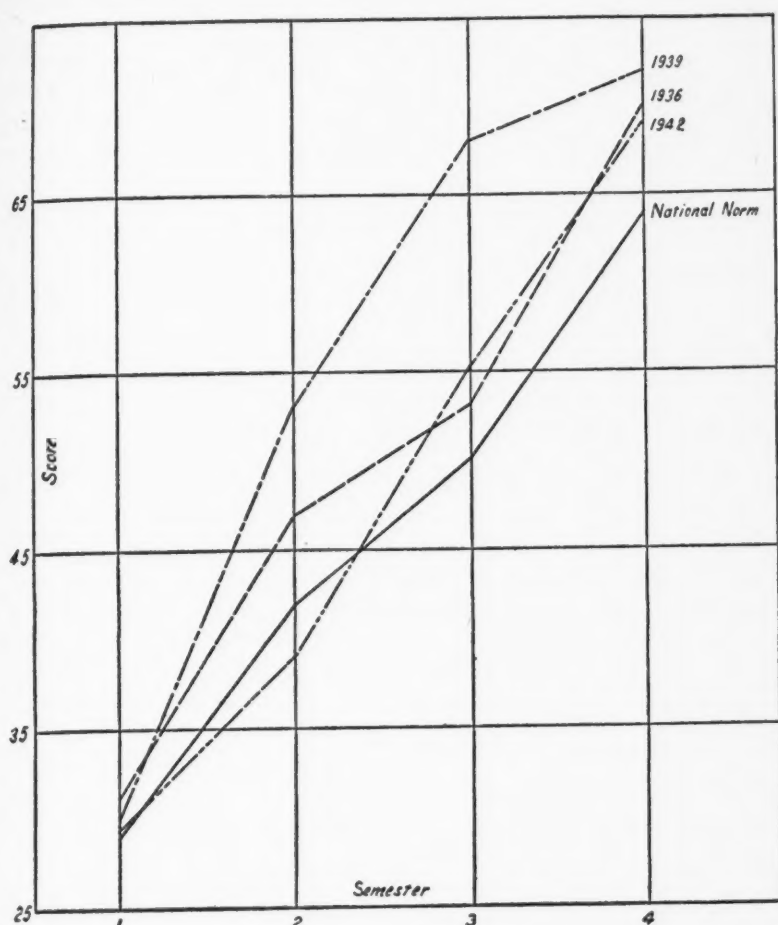


FIG. 1. Median Scores on the American Council on Education German Reading Tests administered at the University of Wisconsin, May 1936, May 1939, and December 1942 compared with the National Norm.

four semester levels. In Figure 2 we have displayed in graphic form the results of the American Council on Education German Reading Tests administered in May, 1939, to the first, second, third, and fourth semester levels. Each oblong, representing the median attainment of a class, is constructed on a line indicating the national norm of that level. (See Table VI.) Hence, by scanning the figure from right to left at the first semester level we learn that 2 classes are above the norm, one almost equal to the second semester level and that two are

below the norm. Proceeding likewise at the second semester level, we find 13 classes above the norm, 1 equal to the norm, and 1 below. Nine of these second semester classes have median scores higher than the third semester national norm, and two of them are even higher than the fourth semester national norm. It is obvious that the median

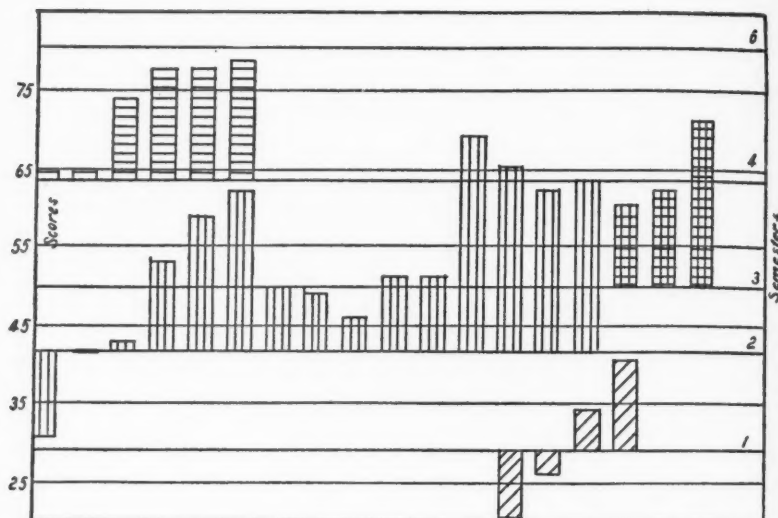


FIG. 2. Showing overlapping, variability, and growth in attainment in terms of the median score for individual classes compared with the national norm on the American Council on Education German Reading Test administered at the University of Wisconsin, May 1939, at the first, second, third, and fourth semester levels.

performance of the lowest second semester class is far below that of the highest first semester class. There are only three third semester classes, two near the next higher norm and one seven points above it. There are six fourth semester classes, all above the norm, four of them being over half way toward the sixth semester norm. Such superior achievement in reading ability indicates clearly that many of these students could have been advanced safely one or more semesters.

#### REACTIONS TO THE PLACEMENT TEST PROGRAM, BOTH PRO AND CON

Before concluding this account of the placement test program in foreign languages at Wisconsin, we wish to present some reactions to the same both for and against.

*Let us first consider the unfavorable side.* In general this has not

been so much against the principle as against two of its debatable limitations. To provide for these limitations, last January and February the various faculties of the foreign language departments, of the College of Letters and Science, and of the University amended that part of the Fish Curriculum bearing on placement tests. The stated purpose of the amendment is "1) to provide a practicable method of appeal for readjustment of placement that would be uniform in the several language departments, and 2) to make advancement of two or more semesters on the basis of the placement test optional instead of mandatory."<sup>14</sup>

In the opinion of the writer the above action embodies the principal objections to the administration of the placement tests as followed for the past thirteen years by those in charge of them and as explained by the author. We have aimed to present in an objective and impartial manner all essential information treating of the subject and hope that we have succeeded in doing so.

*Now for the favorable side.* If the support of the placement test program by administrative officers of the University (Presidents, Deans, Registrars, Research Committees, and the like) should have any weight, then its rôle in the curriculum must have appealed to them as sound and worth while, for the writer has not only received the financial support of these authorities but he has on file letters or other documents from them in which they approve the plan and the way in which it has been directed.

If one may judge of the value of our placement test program in the curriculum by the many references to it as authoritative work in pedagogical and language journals and educational books as well as in non-technical reviews, then our plan and its procedure have been valid.<sup>15-18</sup> Further corroborating approval of the placement plan as carried on here can be found in the many references to it in the two

<sup>14</sup> See Minutes of Special Letters and Science Meeting held January 25, 1943, and also Minutes of regular University Faculty Meeting held Monday, February 1, 1943.

<sup>15</sup> Chester Morton, "Revolution in Wisconsin: An Interview by Chester Morton with Glenn Frank, President, University of Wisconsin," *Review of Reviews*, Vol. LXXXII, No. 2 (August, 1930), pp. 91-92.

<sup>16</sup> Carl Russell Fish, "The Wisconsin Curriculum," *School and Society*, Vol. XXXIII, No. 842 (February 14, 1931), pp. 242-245.

<sup>17</sup> R. D. Cole, "A Plea for More Experimental Work by College Departments of Modern Languages," *School and Society*, Vol. XXXV, No. 902 (April 9, 1932), pp. 501-503.

<sup>18</sup> Harold E. Palmer in article in *Bulletin of the Institute for Research in English*, Tokyo, Japan, December, 1933.



bibliographies by Coleman and in the latest works on modern language methodology by Cole and Tharp, Handschin, Hagboldt, Oliver and others.<sup>19-24</sup>

#### PLACEMENT TESTING IN OTHER INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING

If it can be shown that our method of articulating high school and college work in a particular field has influenced other institutions of higher learning to follow suit, then indeed our plan has the approval of many sister institutions, for we have on file considerable correspondence pointing in this direction. Whereas Wisconsin stood almost alone in a sound placement test plan thirteen years ago, today there are 133 colleges and universities that have some form of testing program.

In November 1942 under the sponsorship of the Bureau of Guidance and Records, we made an investigation of the use of standardized placement tests in all universities and colleges that had an enrollment of 500 or more. To our inquiry there were many interesting and enlightening replies which are summarized below.

*General Situation.* There were 167 answers to the 212 questionnaires sent out, from which it was learned that 133 institutions have some kind of testing program, 47 do not.

*Foreign Language Situation.* Of the 120 having a placement testing program, 74 conduct a foreign language placement testing program; 46 have placement tests but not in foreign languages.

Of 59 who promote by placement in foreign languages, 23 grant course credit for courses skipped or exempt students from further work in languages. 36 do not grant course credit or exemptions.

Of 74 having foreign language placement, 60 demote on the basis of the examination; 14 do not. Of the 60 that demote in foreign

<sup>19</sup> A. Coleman, *An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching*, 1927-1932, Vol. I (University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, 1933).

<sup>20</sup> A. Coleman, *An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching*, 1932-1937, Vol. II (University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, 1938).

<sup>21</sup> R. D. Cole and J. B. Tharp, *Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*. (Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1937.)

<sup>22</sup> Peter Hagboldt, *The Teaching of German* (D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1940).

<sup>23</sup> C. H. Handschin, *Modern Language Teaching* (World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, 1940).

<sup>24</sup> T. E. Oliver, *The Modern Language Teacher's Handbook* (D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1935).

languages, 30 give part or full credit for the repeated course; 30 do not.

Of 74 having foreign language placement, 11 use the test for sectioning only; 63 promote or demote or both as well as hold stationary or normal.

Of 74 having foreign language placement, 69 hold tests as mandatory; 5 make them optional.

*Situation in other Subjects.* Out of 120 that have placement tests, 71 have them in English, 42 in Mathematics, and 21 in Science (chiefly in Chemistry).

#### CONCLUSION

In the foregoing study we have traced the origin, nature, adoption, and administration of placement tests in foreign languages at the University of Wisconsin for the period 1930-43. Because of the limitations of space we have been obliged to omit the discussion of some conditioning factors such as intelligence quotients, grade-point averages, methods of language teaching, sectioning into upper and lower groups, and the rating of instructors. However, we feel certain that the inclusion of such material, while enlightening, would not have changed the general result. We believe that our review presents the true picture of a highly co-ordinated plan of applied science in the field of education and foreign languages. The following are some of the important findings:

1. The total number of placements used in this study is in round numbers about 8000, French leading the way with German, Spanish, and Latin following in order.

2. The proportion of normals, advanced, and retarded over the whole period is approximately 80 per cent, 16 per cent, and 4 per cent.

3. All but 5 per cent of the normals passed the required work, 82 per cent earning A's, B's, and C's compared with an estimated 73 per cent prior to 1930.

4. All but one-half of 1 per cent of the advanced passed the required work, 97 per cent of them earning A's, B's, and C's. These students saved about 11,000 credits toward language requirements.

5. Only 53 per cent of the demoted students earned A's, B's, and C's.

6. All data concerning promotions in the four languages yield ob-

jective evidence that many students can be and should be advanced more than one semester. The results of 98 per cent to 100 per cent of satisfactory grades at four different levels of promotion prove that the placement tests have the highest predictive value.

7. The supplementary evidence of students advanced to third and fourth year French proves the predictive value of the placement test to be from 95 per cent to 100 per cent and warrants promotions beyond one semester. Furthermore, the investigation of students who skipped the elementary survey course to take the advanced survey course in French shows that the results justified such promotions from the point of view of a fair amount of study, a good knowledge of literature and superior marks.

8. The study of the promotions in German and Latin beyond one semester proves that the predictive value of the placement tests in those languages was as high as that in French and Spanish and justified the advancement of more than one semester.

9. The evidence furnished by Spanish for the first four semesters of work during the preplacement and placement periods points rather definitely to placement as the main factor in the very noticeable improvement in satisfactory grades. We omitted similar favorable evidence for French, but could find no comparable data for German and Latin for the preplacement and placement periods.

10. The value of the placement tests for the study of comparable achievement is shown by the results of their administration three different times in the first four semesters of German; the medians were above the national norms at eleven out of twelve points of reference.

11. In spite of the limitations imposed by the Faculties of Letters and Science and the University last January and February, the reaction to the placement test program has been generally favorable as evidenced by the testimony of many eminent scholars here and abroad.

The announced purpose of the placement program at its inception was given as aiming to reduce the mortality in foreign languages, to acquire greater accuracy in classification, to save time in fulfilling requirements, to raise the level of achievement, and to set a good example for others to follow. We are convinced that the foregoing account of this forward step in modern education proves that it was established on solid ground and that it has realized in a very real way its aim of a dozen years ago. We like to believe that all concerned in the progress of the University will see to it that this part of its curriculum is not weakened but strengthened in the future.



## Selection of Students for County Scholarships at the University of Illinois

J. THOMAS HASTINGS AND DONALD A. GROSSMAN

FOR MANY years the University of Illinois has awarded annually one scholarship in each county of the state to the applicant who, on a competitive examination, is found to possess the highest qualifications. These scholarships exempt the holders from the payment of the matriculation and tuition fees for a period of four years in any department of the University. The competitive examinations are held under the supervision of the County Superintendent of Schools in each of the 102 counties in the state on the first Saturday in June each year. The candidate receiving the highest mark on the examination, if otherwise eligible, is awarded the scholarship. If for any reason the applicant receiving the highest mark fails to qualify for admission or for any other reason does not enter, then the scholarship is offered to the candidate ranking second highest. Because of its large population sixteen additional scholarships are awarded in Cook County on the basis of excellency in this examination. Scholarships in Horticulture and Home Economics are also awarded by this examination. The examinations are open to all high school graduates who are sixteen years of age or older, except that no person may compete for this scholarship who has had normal school, college, or university training.

In recent years the University has been using objective type examinations to obtain a more uniform standard of marking throughout the state. The questions are selected and distributed to the counties by the Registrar's Office of the University of Illinois. The examinations are conducted by the County Superintendents of Schools, and the papers are returned to the University where they are graded. The candidates are notified of their standing by the Registrar's Office.

The purpose of the examination is to select for the scholarship award the most competent student from among those competing in each county. The question is, "Do these examinations result in the selection of superior students from the various counties in the state for tuition-free advanced training in the University?" There have been no detailed studies in Illinois of the efficacy of the procedure for scholarship selection.

The question may be divided into two parts: (1) Are the students selected by this procedure superior on these examinations to high school seniors or entering college freshmen in general? (2) Are the students who are awarded scholarships superior to the average University of Illinois student in academic ability as judged by freshman grades in the University? Both questions receive consideration in this article.

Attention is directed to the questions concerning relative academic superiority of scholarship recipients because of three factors: (1) Only those who apply take the examinations. (2) Not the highest scores in the state, but the highest score *within each county* is awarded a scholarship. (3) Alternates are selected from lower down in the distribution of scores. It might well be that the final group selected would be representative of average scholastic material, or, at least, not clearly superior to the average.

In June, 1943, the County Scholarship Examinations given by the University of Illinois were administered in ninety-six counties throughout the state—all of those having applicants. The four examinations used were the *Co-operative English Test, Form O*, and the *Co-operative General Achievement Tests: I. A Test of General Proficiency in the Field of Social Studies; II. A Test of General Proficiency in the Field of Natural Sciences; III. A Test of General Proficiency in the Field of Mathematics*. Each examinee was required to take the English test and two others which he chose from the remaining three.

Scores were obtained for 412 students on the English test. The numbers for the other tests were Social Studies, 255; Natural Sciences, 298; and Mathematics, 271. Scholarships were awarded to 168 of the examinees.

The means and standard deviations on each of the tests for the total group (all of those taking the scholarship examinations) and for the scholarship group (those receiving scholarships) are presented in Table I. For comparison, the means and standard deviations of a representative twelfth-grade group and of a representative group of entering freshmen are included in this same Table. The latter data are from the norms which are published by the Co-operative Test Service. All the statistics are in terms of "scaled scores" for the Co-operative Tests. A scaled score of 50 represents the expected performance of an "average" individual at the completion of a given period in a typical course in high school.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> John C. Flanagan. *The Co-operative Achievement Tests: A Bulletin Reporting*

TABLE I  
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF VARIOUS GROUPS ON THE  
COUNTY SCHOLARSHIP EXAMINATIONS

	County Scholarship Data		Co-operative Test Service Data <sup>1</sup>	
	Total Group	Scholarship Group	Twelfth Grade	College Freshmen
English				
Mean	58.2	60.4	53.2	55.6
Standard Deviation	8.4	8.9	9.7	9.3
Number of cases	412	168	35000 <sup>2</sup>	9000 <sup>2</sup>
Social Studies				
Mean	66.0	68.3	54.0	58.0
Standard Deviation	10.3	11.0	9.9	10.8
Number of cases	255	105	3900	1127
Natural Science				
Mean	65.6	66.7	53.0	58.7
Standard Deviation	7.4	7.4	9.8	9.7
Number of cases	298	124	3900	1045
Mathematics				
Mean	67.7	68.9	49.9	59.5
Standard Deviation	6.9	6.4	10.6	10.4
Number of cases	271	107	3900	1559

<sup>1</sup> *The Co-operative Achievement Tests: A Booklet of Norms*, Co-operative Test Service, 15 Amsterdam Avenue, New York, 1938.

<sup>2</sup> Exact number of cases not given with norms, but these rounded numbers are given in *The Co-operative Achievement Tests, A Booklet of Norms: Introduction*. Co-operative Test Service, 15 Amsterdam Avenue, New York, 1938.

The data in Table I show that the mean of the total group is higher than the mean of the twelfth-grade group or the entering freshman sample on each of the tests. The county scholarship examinations were taken by a group which is not only superior to high school seniors but which makes higher scores than do typical college freshmen. It may also be seen that the group receiving scholarships has a higher mean in each case than the total group: even though selection is by counties and alternate choices are made, the scholarship group represents a higher degree of proficiency than the total group in terms of scores on these examinations.

Table II presents data which show that the differences between the means of the scholarship group and the means of the entering freshman group are statistically significant.

The same idea is given, in a different fashion, in Table III. The percentile ranks of the means for the total group and for the scholar-

*the Basic Principles and Procedures Used in the Development of Their System of Scaled Scores*. New York: The Co-operative Test Service, 1939.

TABLE II

DIFFERENCE AND CRITICAL RATIO OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEAN OF GROUP AWARDED SCHOLARSHIP AND ENTERING COLLEGE FRESHMEN<sup>1</sup>

	Mean of Scholarship Group minus Mean of Entering Freshmen	Standard Error of Difference	Critical Ratio
English	4.8	.745 <sup>2</sup>	6.44
Social Studies	10.3	1.125	9.16
Natural Science	8.0	.731	10.9
Mathematics	9.4	.675	13.9

<sup>1</sup> As given in *The Co-operative Achievement Tests: A Booklet of Norms*, Co-operative Test Service, 15 Amsterdam Avenue, New York.

<sup>2</sup> The exact number of cases was not given but since more than 1000 cases were used, the standard error was computed with  $N=1000$  for the Co-operative data on English. Increasing the number of cases will, of course, increase the critical ratio which is large enough to warrant a statement of statistical significance as it is.

ship group are based upon the distributions of twelfth-graders and entering college freshmen. It is clear that those receiving scholarships form a highly select group.

Data were collected on the years of study in each area except English, which is basically four years, for the students taking the scholarship examinations. It is shown in Table IV that the superiority of the scholarship group to the total group is not due to additional years of preparation. These statistics do indicate, however, that students taking the scholarship examinations have had more training in Natural Science and Mathematics than the "typical" student as repre-

TABLE III

PERCENTILE RANKS OF MEANS FOR TOTAL GROUP AND FOR SCHOLARSHIP GROUP; BASED UPON TWELFTH-GRADE NORMS AND ENTERING FRESHMEN NORMS

	Total Group	Scholarship Group
English		
Twelfth-grade norms	69	76
Freshman norms	60	68
Social Studies		
Twelfth-grade norms	87	92
Freshman norms	73	79
Natural Science		
Twelfth-grade norms	87	89
Freshman norms	76	78
Mathematics		
Twelfth-grade norms	91	92
Freshman norms	76	79

TABLE IV  
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF YEARS OF STUDY FOR THE TOTAL GROUP AND FOR THOSE RECEIVING SCHOLARSHIPS

	Total Group			Scholarship Group		
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number
Social Studies	2.5	0.85	255	2.4	0.84	105
Natural Science	2.8	0.95	298	2.8	1.01	124
Mathematics	3.0	0.75	271	2.9	0.69	107

sented by the Co-operative "scaled score" of 50, since this score is based on the student who has had two years each of these subjects. Length of study in Social Science is two and one-half years for the 50-point on the scaled scores.

In answer to the *first part* of the general question, it may be stated that the students selected by the scholarship examinations are superior on these examinations to high school seniors or entering college freshmen in general. The procedure is efficient in selecting stu-

TABLE V  
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR 1942 GROUPS AND THE CRITICAL RATIOS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN 1942 AND 1943 MEANS

	1942 Data		Critical Ratios of 1942 Data Minus 1943 Data <sup>1</sup>	
	Total Group	Scholarship Group	Total Group	Scholarship Group
English				
Mean	57.9	60.6	0.6	0.2
Standard Deviation	8.9	9.2		
Number of cases	807	214		
Social Studies				
Mean	68.1	71.7	2.7	2.4
Standard Deviation	9.8	10.3		
Number of cases	498	130		
Natural Science				
Mean	65.0	67.5	1.2	0.9
Standard Deviation	7.3	7.5		
Number of cases	598	156		
Mathematics				
Mean	69.8	71.9	3.8	3.2
Standard Deviation	8.6	8.6		
Number of cases	518	142		

<sup>1</sup> The difference between means divided by the standard error of the difference.



dents who should be able to benefit from advanced educational training more than the average high school student if achievement on these four tests is assumed to be an index of ability to benefit.

The *second part* of the general question is concerned with whether these select students, who are superior on the tests, are also superior in University grades to the average University of Illinois freshman. The answer to this question is given by data which were obtained on the scholarship students of the 1942 examination. The tests used in 1942 and 1943 were comparable forms and the examination and selection procedures were identical with those in the foregoing description.

The 1942 data on means and standard deviations on each of the tests for the total group and for the scholarship group are presented in Table V. Also shown in Table V are the differences in means between 1942 and 1943 data and the ratios of difference to standard error of difference. It may be seen that statements which have been made concerning the 1943 group are equally true of the 1942 group. The critical ratios are of such a size that only the differences in means in the Social Studies and Mathematics areas could be considered statistically significant,<sup>2</sup> and in these cases the differences are small and in favor of the 1942 group.

Of the 214 who were awarded scholarships on the basis of the 1942 examinations, it was possible to obtain complete grade point averages<sup>3</sup> for their freshman year (both semesters) for 155. The average of the grade point averages was computed for all of the 155 who had taken the English part of the examinations (all candidates were required to take this part), for all who had taken the Social Studies part, for all who had taken the Natural Science part, and for all who had taken the Mathematics part. These average grade point averages are presented in Table VI.

Included in Table VI are the figures for mean grade point average of all freshmen in 1935-1937, and the corresponding average for all freshmen in those years who had ranked in the highest quarter of

<sup>2</sup> E. E. Lindquist, *Statistical Analysis in Educational Research*, pp. 56-58. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940.

<sup>3</sup> To obtain a grade point average the grades from F to A are assigned values 1 to 5. Then a student's grade (numerical) for each subject is multiplied by the course hours for that subject. The sum of these numbers is divided by the sum of the course hours. A grade average of exactly C would equal 3.00, of B would equal 4.00, etc.



their high school graduating class.<sup>4</sup> It is clear that the scholarship group, as selected by the scholarship examination procedure, obtained a higher grade point average than the average University freshman and that this group actually had a better academic record in the University than the select upper quarter of high school graduates.

TABLE VI  
GRADE POINT AVERAGES OF 1942 SCHOLARSHIP GROUP DURING  
FRESHMAN YEAR OF 1942-1943

	Mean Grade Point Average	Standard Deviation	Number of Cases
English (Total Group)	3.81	.672	155
Social Studies	3.79	.209	95
Natural Science	4.18	.684	120
Mathematics	3.89	.735	95
Average of all freshmen <sup>4</sup>	3.178		
Average of freshmen who were high- est quarter in high school rank <sup>4</sup>	3.638		

The second part of the general question, as well as the first, may now be answered in the affirmative: the students who are awarded scholarships by the county scholarship procedure are superior to the average University of Illinois student in academic ability as judged by freshman grades in the University.

<sup>4</sup>E. C. Seyler, "The Value of Rank in High School Graduating Class for Predicting Freshman Scholarship," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XV (October, 1939), 8-10.

## An Experiment in Teaching Post-war Problems

BEN A. ARNESON

IN AN endeavor to offer undergraduate students a general survey of the more important social, economic, and political problems of international significance which will have to be faced in the post-war world, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio, has set up in the current semester (November 1, 1943 to March 1, 1944) a trans-departmental course called the Post-War World.

### PRELIMINARY ACTIVITIES

At the request of the faculty curriculum committee a special committee of nine faculty members was set up in June 1943 to take the responsibility of developing and offering the course. The committee was constituted as follows: one man each from the departments of Economics, Education, History, Philosophy and Sociology; two men from the department of Political Science, and two others who were included because of their experiences in foreign lands, one from the field of Religion and the other the Dean of Men. The writer of this note, a member of the department of Political Science, was made chairman of the committee and director of the course. The Dean of the College and the President of the University were ex-officio members of the committee. Other members of the faculty, especially those from the field of History were called on from time to time to give assistance. The University Librarian also was in constant touch with the committee, especially in relation to the problem of providing proper materials and facilities.

Through the summer and early fall the members of the committee spent much time individually and collectively in making detailed preparations for the course. Their first task was to select the problems or topics which should receive attention. It was decided that fifteen problems, approximately one for each week of the semester, should be provided for. Some of these topics were regional, others dealt with more special social, economic, or political problems; all of them, of course, were international in their significance. A list of these topics together with brief comments on each appears below. Another early decision was to have one general lecture each week on one of the

designated topics, these lectures for the most part (as it turned out all but three) to be given by specialists drawn from outside of the faculty. With the co-operation of the President the Merrick Lectures given annually on the campus were combined with the course, thus making added funds available for defraying the costs involved in securing outside speakers. A list of the speakers appears in a later paragraph. Still another task was the selection of appropriate and available texts and reading materials. A sub-committee was set up which made an exhaustive study of this problem and drew up a list of materials classified as follows: (a) required texts and pamphlets which were either to be purchased by all students or placed in the library in sufficient quantities and (b) supplementary readings to be made available through the library.

The most arduous task faced by the committee, however, was the preparation of the syllabus. In order to provide for division of labor and to utilize specialized training each committee member was given the responsibility of preparing one or more syllabus units on one or more of the topics selected for inclusion in the course. All of these units were then edited and combined into a syllabus by a sub-committee headed by a member of the Department of Education who did a prodigious amount of work in harmonizing the contents of the various units, checking on lists of assigned and supplementary readings and providing for uniformity in form.

#### MECHANICS OF THE COURSE

In order not to complicate the registrar's task of keeping records on the course, it was decided not to list it separately under each department involved, but to list it as a Social Science course. The fact that one other course (an introductory course for freshmen) was already in existence under Social Science made such procedure natural and proper.

While it was generally agreed that it would be entirely reasonable to make this a course carrying a large number of hours of credit, it was nevertheless decided that the purpose of the course should merely be to introduce the student to the respective problems to be presented in the hope that many enrollees would later continue further study in the various fields involved rather than to make any endeavor to engage in exhaustive study. Hence the credit hours to be earned were fixed at two with the provision that an additional hour might be

earned by additional supervised work with the permission of the instructor. The limitation imposed by busy schedules of other courses carried by the committee members was also a factor in deciding in favor of a limited number of credit hours. No freshmen were to be enrolled in the course except by special permission.

As indicated in an earlier paragraph, all persons enrolled in the course are required to attend one general lecture each week. In addition each student enrolls for one of nine sections presided over respectively by individual members of the committee. The person in charge of each section is responsible for the records, assignments, examinations and grading of those enrolled in the section. In order to distribute the demands for library material the sections are scattered throughout the week from Tuesday to Saturday. None is scheduled on Monday so that all sections in a given week come after the general lecture.

#### METHODS

In order to secure a reasonable amount of uniformity in methods and emphasis on content between the nine sections, as well as to take advantage of the stimulus resulting from co-operative efforts, a one hour meeting of the committee in charge of the course is held each Monday morning. Very frequently the outside speaker who is to speak that evening arrives in time to participate in this conference.

While the most important part of the program at the Monday evening meeting is the lecture by a specialist, at least half an hour is devoted after the formal lecture to a question period. At this time questions are received first from those enrolled in the course and later from the general public which has been liberal in its attendance.

In the various sections each instructor uses the particular method which suits him best although, in general, class participation rather than lecturing is the common practice. Students are encouraged to comment on material presented in the general lecture and various points stressed in the assigned readings are given attention. A minor portion of the hour is spent in preparing the student for the general lecture scheduled for the succeeding week.

#### CONTENT

The fifteen "problems" or topics which make up the content of the course in no sense constitute a complete survey of every problem which may arise in the post-war world. Rather each constitutes a focus toward which the student's thinking may be directed as a part

of a legitimate program of study. The topics are arranged chronologically on the basis of logical sequence as much as possible, although a very practical problem was to arrange them also in the order in which outside speakers were available. To secure a specialist with a national or even an international reputation for any date he has open during the year is one thing. To schedule him for a particular Monday night is something else.

Following is a list of the topics included in the course together with brief comments on each.

I. Historical Background—The Decade of Hope (1918-1929)  
An analysis of the difficulties encountered by the Treaty of Versailles and of its failure to solve them in the twenties.

The general lecture on this topic was given by Dr. Hastings Eells, Professor of History, Ohio Wesleyan University.

II. Historical Background—The Decade of Despair (1929-1939)  
How the more hopeful trends in international relations that marked the late twenties gave way to the aggressions of Hitler, to the failure of collective security and of appeasement and to the coming of the second World War.

Dr. H. C. Hubbart, Professor of History, Ohio Wesleyan University, gave the lecture on this topic.

III. The U.S.S.R. in the Post-War World. Further development of the Pan-Slav movement leading to added states and controls in Eastern Europe; possible Russian domination of the Baltic; added Pacific bases; Russian influence on post-war settlements.

The lecture on this topic was given by Dr. John L. Childs of Columbia University, well-known writer in this field.

IV. Germany, Fascism and the Future. An examination of the nature and causes of fascism: emphasis on the need of destroying the roots of fascism wherever they appear.

Dr. J. L. Hromadka, formerly of the John Huss Faculty, Charles University, Prague, was the speaker.

V. China—Pacific Ally. A study of four basic conditions for peace in China; (1) Japan must be defeated, (2) the western powers must release their hold, (3) China must be independent and must be strengthened and (4) there must be a drastic facing of her agrarian and industrial situation.

The outside speaker on this topic was Dr. Y. C. Yang, President of Soochow University, China.

VI. Japan—The Firebrand of the Far East. A study of the inter-



national problems arising out of Japan's attempt to interpret a tradition and ideology essentially feudalistic in terms of modern government (at least in form), to build a highly industrial nation on an economically medieval foundation, and to impose Nipponism on an unwilling world.

The lecture on this topic was delivered by Mr. Thomas A. Bisson of the staff of the Institute of Pacific Relations.

VII. The American Economy in the Post-War World. A consideration of American restrictive trade policies as contributing factors to the second World War and of minimum measures necessary to re-establish normal international trade relations.

Dr. Gilbert H. Barnes, Professor of Economics, Ohio Wesleyan University, was the lecturer on this topic.

VIII. Monopoly in the Post-War World. The development of industrial cartels and private monopolies in Axis countries as a primary cause for their aggressive alliance against the free world; the need for checking and controlling similar developments in the democratic countries, already gone far, lest fascism still conquer the post-war world from within.

The lecture was given by Dr. Clair Wilcox, Professor of Economics, Swarthmore, and Consultant with Office of Price Administration.

IX. Peace and Security. A discussion of the causes and the remedies for the great personal and national economic insecurity which characterizes our dynamic interdependent world, which insecurity is an important cause of unrest and war.

Dr. H. Gordon Hayes, Professor of Economics, Ohio State University, was the lecturer.

X. The Realist, The Idealist and International Power. An examination of the purpose of this war as the basic issue in discussing post-war problems: the kind of international society to be developed: security through alliances or a dynamic order. Is the war an episode in a profound economic revolution?

The lecture related to this topic was given by Dr. Robert S. Lynd, Professor of Sociology, Columbia University, author of *Middletown* and *Middletown in Transition*.

XI. & XII. Political Organization of the Post-War World. A discussion of the underlying principles and a consideration of the possibilities of securing, in the light of the present world situation, such organs of international co-operation as may be necessary to secure a just and enduring peace.



The lecturers on this combined topic were Dr. Henry A. Atkinson, General Secretary of the Church Peace Union and World Alliance for International Friendship and Dr. Manley O. Hudson, Professor of International Law, Harvard University and since 1936, Judge on the Permanent Court of International Justice (World Court); The Hague.

XIII. The Place of the Small States in the Post-War World. Nationalism and self-determination in its relation to the security of small states: the place of such states in world organization, in regional federations, in power groups.

The general lecture was given by Mrs. Vera Dean, Research Director, Foreign Policy Association.

XIV. Mandated and Colonial Areas. A re-thinking of early twentieth century decisions regarding such areas in both hemispheres. Who should control such areas, when, and for how long are major issues.

The outside speaker under this topic was Dr. Francis B. Sayre, former governor of the Philippines and now with the Department of State. At Dr. Sayre's suggestion he spoke on the topic of Relief and Rehabilitation, an activity with which he is at present closely connected, rather than on the topic announced in the syllabus. The study groups, however, will make a study of Mandates and Colonies also. This means in effect that the course will deal with sixteen instead of fifteen topics.

XV. The Relation of American Public Opinion and of Leadership in America to the Problems of the Post-War World. The significance of the attitudes of American leaders and of American public opinion; the necessity for a definite foreign policy and the difficulties and problems arising in connection with its formulation and administration.

Hon. Harold H. Burton, U. S. Senator from Ohio delivered the lecture on this topic.

#### RELATION TO THE GENERAL PUBLIC

As indicated above, the course was combined this year with the lectures on the Merrick Foundation. This Foundation provides for a series of five lectures each year in the field of practical religion and for the publication of such lectures in book form. This year it is hoped to include twelve lectures in this volume. Combined also with the course is another institution of long standing, namely the Lecture Course which regularly brings three or four noted speakers to the campus each year. Students enrolled in the course and those faculty

members teaching it were given season passes to the weekly lectures. To other members of the student body and of the faculty as well as to the general public tickets were made available at low cost which cost was reduced to those who also secured season tickets for the Concert Series offered regularly each year. The sale of tickets and the general administration of admission to the lectures was handled not by the committee in charge of the course but by the faculty-student committee which regularly takes charge of such matters. Approximately one thousand season lecture tickets have been sold. This relationship between the Post-War Course and the Merrick Lectures and between it and the Lecture Course has not only given each lecturer an audience made up of enrolled students who are studying the topics discussed, but has provided also an attentive and appreciative general audience made up of students, faculty members and citizens not only of Delaware but persons from some distance. The general public has been invited to purchase copies of the syllabus and of the texts used. In these ways the course has sought to give service to the entire community.

Because of the wide publicity given to the course several of the members of the committee in charge have been asked to speak in various cities in Ohio. In the neighboring city of Marion, for example, where the churches have combined to give a series of nine Sunday evening lectures on the subject "Building a Christian Post-War World," seven of the lectures are being given by members of the Ohio Wesleyan University faculty who are participating in the course.

#### EVALUATION OF THE COURSE

Brief comments will be made on the value of the course as viewed by the instructors participating in it, by students enrolled in it, by the rest of the college community and by the general public.

A minority of the teachers believe that it should have included one more hour of credit so as to allow more detailed study of each topic. The majority believe that it should rather serve as a mere introduction with the hope that elaboration of the topics will be secured in the various fields or departments involved. All are agreed that the course seems to have been provocative and that it has made clear to those taking it that making peace is a complicated problem. It is admitted that the course was somewhat lacking in the matter of coherence, but this disadvantage may be compensated for by the benefits received from a

variety of outside lecturers. The course has very definitely demonstrated the feasibility of hearty and cordial trans-departmental co-operation.

A detailed questionnaire is to be filled out by all students enrolled, to be turned in with the final examination. The students are to be asked to grade the topics on the basis of interest, the various outside speakers on the basis of interest and stimulus to thinking, and the various reading materials as to their usefulness. Other types of comments and evaluations are also asked for. At the present writing the results of this questionnaire are not available.

The attitude toward the course on the part of the college community and the general public seems to be favorable and appreciative. Indications are that a similarly organized course, probably in some other field or combination of fields will be given next year.

It is hoped that the course has succeeded in part at least in attaining its objectives; which according to the syllabus are to stimulate those who pursue it: (1) to understand the basic causes of present world-wide strife, war, and hatred; (2) to realize the desirability of international organization and to be familiar with the most authoritative schemes, official and private; (3) to check their opinions against those of others, including outstanding authorities; (4) to acquire an interest in and enthusiasm about world affairs which will lead to actions and influences beyond the campus; and (5) to acquire or continue the habits of keeping continuously informed about world events.

## The Final Mark Considered as a Synthesis of Grades

H. M. COX, F. S. HARPER, AND R. D. SCOTT

THE FINAL grade in a course is a composite of many factors. Some of the factors are clearly defined; others are hard to define. Some factors are peculiar to a single instructor or to a group of instructors; others are agreed upon by all teachers. Some factors are susceptible of measurement; others do not yield readily to measurement.

The combination of the measurements of the factors into marks is difficult for any teacher no matter how experienced. The difficulties are accentuated when an attempt is made to arrive at comparable semester marks in multi-sectional courses, taught by different teachers with varying experiences and standards. Each teacher may have some particular scheme for setting marks within a section or course. But these schemes do not, in general, apply to more than the one section or the one course.

The use of a common examination in and of itself does not produce marks which are comparable from section to section. For example, common classification examinations and common final examinations were introduced into courses of freshman English and freshman mathematics at the University of Nebraska before any thought was given to their use as a basis for marking in terms of the course rather than in terms of the instructor or section. In short, there was no agreement among instructors in the use of examination scores save, perhaps, in setting critical levels for *passing* or *failing*. Studies of the examinations, however, revealed their adequacy not only for determining the critical levels of passing or failing but also for establishing differential grades for students of various stages of accomplishment relative to the course as a whole. Thus it was decided to use more fully the results from common, final examinations in assigning semester marks.

### PROCEDURE

The Department of Mathematics in the fall of 1940 resolved that, "The class *average* (mean) semester mark shall not deviate by more than two points from the class *average* on the final examination, excluding those who fail the course." In the Department of English the teachers charged with instruction in freshman courses (0, 1,

and 2) have followed a more detailed procedure. The final examination given at the end of the first semester consists of two parts: first, an examination comparable to the test given for classification purposes; second, a theme which is rated on a half-dozen categories and marked on a scale made equivalent to the uniform examination. The uniform examination consists of questions predicated upon the skills and techniques of English composition; the theme ratings are intended to measure some of the more intangible objectives of the course.

The procedure followed in freshman English courses requires that each teacher make a distribution of the examination marks for a section and then use this distribution as a guide for assigning marks to the theme written at the end of the course. (The exact procedure for reading themes and assigning marks is given as an appendix.) In a similar manner, as shown in Table I, the teacher uses the distribution of marks on the final examination as a guide to express the quiz-daily average accumulated over the semester. The three marks—examination, theme, and quiz-daily average—have by this procedure been reduced to a common denominator; they can be added together to provide a ranking of the students within a section. The sum of the three grades is used only to provide the rank-order; to this rank-order the distribution of examination marks is applied in order to determine the final mark. The picture is that the distribution of final marks is approximately the same as the *distribution* of marks on the uniform examination, i.e., there are about the same number of marks over 90, between 80 and 90, etc. What has been accomplished is to effect a reconciliation between the varying standards which obtain in the minds of individual teachers.

The display of a section of students in rank-orders reveals more clearly than do abstract marks the accomplishments of individual students relative to the group as a whole. For example, in the table it may be observed that a final mark of 70 obscures the fact that Mary Brown can write an excellent theme but falls below the average on her quiz-daily average and final examination. By contrast, Dillingham gave promise of better than average performance up to the time of writing the final theme. (These data are abstracted from English 1, first semester 1942-1943; names of students are fictionalized.)

The procedure followed in courses in mathematics is somewhat different from that described above; the instructor's ratings over a semes-



TABLE I  
ILLUSTRATION OF THE MARKING PROCEDURES WHICH ARE USED IN FRESHMAN ENGLISH AT THE  
UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA

Students ranked in descending order according to mark of final, uniform examination	Mark* on final uniform examination	Students ranked in descending order according to theme written at end of course	Mark** on theme	Students ranked in descending order according to quiz-daily average	Mark** on Quiz-Daily	Students ranked in descending order according to sum of marks on examination theme, and quiz-daily	FINAL SEMESTER MARK**
Ellsworth	88	Abrams	88	Abrams	88	Ellsworth, Robert	<del>88</del> 86
Quillian	84	Ellsworth	<del>84</del> 82	Ellsworth	84	Abrams, James	<del>84</del> 86
Roberts	78	Gamevell	<del>78</del> 82	Quillian	78	Quillian, Ralph	78
Abrams	76	Brown	<del>76</del> 82	Gamevell	76	Gamevell, Arthur	<del>76</del> 78
Gamevell	74	Roberts	<del>76</del> 78	Tifton	76	Tifton, William	76
Tifton	72	Quillian	<del>74</del> 72	Dillingham	74	Roberts, John	74
Jones	70	Tifton	72	Farrell	72	Brown, Mary	<del>72</del> 70
Farrell	70	Williams	<del>70</del> 68	Williams	70	Farrell, Walter	70
Smith, Betty	64	Farrell	<del>64</del> 68	Brown	<del>64</del> 68	Jones, Blackstone	64
Dillingham	62	Jones	62	Roberts	62	Williams, Allen	<del>62</del> 64
Carder	60	Smith, Betty	62	Jones	60	Dillingham, James	<del>62</del> 64
Brown	<del>57</del> F	Dillingham	<del>60</del> 62	Smith, Betty	F	Smith, Betty	60
Williams	<del>50</del> F	Smith, Robert	F 62	Carder	F	Carder, Jane	F
Smith, Robert	<del>50</del> F	Carder	F	Smith, Robert	F	Smith, Robert	F
(Median).....	(71)	.....	(70)	.....	(71)	.....	(70)
(Mean).....	(70)	.....	(71)	.....	(70)	.....	(70)

\* Marks set by staff based on scores on final examination.

\*\* Note that adjustments have been made in the marks for individual students in order to indicate more accurately their relative position within the section.



ter are combined by no set formula with marks on the final examination. However, the mean mark made on the examination by the students in a section is used as the pivot in determining the final, semester mark. The scheme is illustrated in Table II.

It may be said that in the English and mathematics courses the scores on final examinations are used, singly, to furnish a rating of

TABLE II  
ILLUSTRATION OF THE MARKING PROCEDURES WHICH ARE USED IN  
FRESHMAN MATHEMATICS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA

Students ranked in descending order according to quiz-daily average	Students ranked in descending order on final, uniform examination	Mark* on examination	Students ranked in descending order according to final mark	FINAL SEMESTER MARK**
Wesley	Mabry	92	Wesley, James	92
Smith	Wesley	88	Mabry, William	88
Mabry	Smith	86	Smith, Aubrey	86
McKay	McKay	84	McKay, John	84
Moss	Ross	80	Moss, Robert	80
Watson	Moss	74	Ross, Rudolph	78
Ross	Watson	74	Watson, William	76
Exeter	Robertson	64	Exeter, Donald	70
Robertson	Exeter	F	Robertson, Cabell	62
Ramsey	Ramsey	F	Ramsey, Ralph	F

(Mean Mark for those passing the course) (80.3) ..... (79.6)

\* Marks set by staff based on scores on final examinations.

\*\* Final marks have been computed by weighting examination one-third; in this example the same rank-order would result if examination were weighted one-half. Adjustments are made in the marks of individual students in order to indicate more accurately their relative positions within the section.

the achievement of individual students, and collectively, to furnish a distribution of final marks for each section of a course. The two operations relating, on the one hand, to students, and, on the other, to sections of students, should be thought of separately. The final mark of a particular student is in no wise fixed by the examination alone; the examination is used in combination with the quiz-daily average and with such other ratings as the course may afford. Thus the stage is set throughout the semester for the instructor to develop the subject-matter in such a manner as he may choose. The procedures used in obtaining final semester marks require simply that the instructor withhold exact evaluation of quiz scores until, from comprehensive final examinations, he can determine the mean level of ability of his students as compared with those of other sections.

## EVALUATION OF PROCEDURE

The effect of the marking procedures in mathematics may be illustrated by a case-study. Two students in Mathematics 21 in the first semester of 1939-1940 were given the same final examination. (The names of students are fictionalized.) Bill Trimble made 69 on the final examination, his quiz-daily average was 88, his semester mark was 82. Thomas James made 80 on the final examination, his quiz-daily average under a "hard-grader" was 76, his final mark was 77. Each man was seventh in a section of twenty-five men each; the section in which James was enrolled made the better average performance on the final examination. *Thus we find a difference of five points in favor of the less able student.* Under the scheme of marking now in use the final mark of Trimble would be 68 and that of James would be 74. There would now very likely be a *six-point difference in favor of the more able student.* The error in marking due to the difference in standards set by different instructors has been overcome by the co-operative effort of a teaching staff.

Mathematical proof of the improvement of marking brought about in courses in mathematics and English calls upon statistical analysis. For example, we find that in each instance there have been higher coefficients of correlation between the semester marks and the elements which are used to make up the final mark. It may be noted that in studies of marks as they are commonly assigned in multi-sectional courses the coefficients of correlation computed section by section may each exceed the correlation when all sections are lumped together. This situation does not continue when the sections are brought into line by the newer system of marking. (A practical test of the adequacy of marking is to discover whether the coefficient of correlation computed on all students taking a course falls at or above the average of the correlations as computed section by section.)

To the individual teacher a change in marking procedures is justified only if something is accomplished within his own, immediate experience. Thus there may be the satisfaction of a job well done, or there may be the more common feeling of trepidation that some student or other has been "passed" or "failed" unjustifiably. A system of marking which stems from a statistically adequate and departmentally approved scheme removes a great deal of this feeling of trepidation and concern on the part of individual teachers. The satisfaction which the newer methods of marking have brought to teachers is indicated by the fact that they have been carried over into the courses in mathematics and English taught in the ASTP.

## EXTENSION TO OTHER COURSES

The schemes of marking now in use in mathematics and freshman English at Nebraska are flexible; adaptations of the two schemes have been used in other courses in the University. Other applications of the methods can be made in courses which have, in part, common content and in courses which are complementary to one another.

## (Appendix)

## METHOD FOR GRADING THEMES IN FRESHMAN ENGLISH

1. On the basis of common examinations (placement, final, etc.) there is obtained a distribution of marks for the students within a section; for example, in Table 1 there are two students with final examination marks between 80 and 90, six students with marks between 70 and 80, four with 60's, and two with F's.
2. In any section, or group, this same distribution may logically be expected in the distribution of theme marks ( $r = .70$  in data for freshman English, first semester, 1939-1940). This does *not* mean that individuals will make the same marks on both theme and final examination; the cases of Mary Brown and James Dillingham illustrate the variations which may occur.
3. Read themes and classify them in broad categories in order of their quality. Reread the themes and assign approximate rank orders to the themes in each category. Reread the themes around the divisions between categories so as to adjust the rank order. (Marginal notations and the customary rubrics will aid materially in, and may substitute for, the second and third readings.)
4. Assign to the themes, in descending order, the predetermined distribution of marks. Theme grades may now be adjusted so as to indicate more accurately the position of each student in the section, so as to denote ties in rank, etc. (More latitude should be used by readers on themes written during the course than on themes written as a part of the final examination.)

## REFERENCES

- Beers, F. S., and Cox, H. M., "Measurement or marking?" *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, Vol. XIII, No. 3 (April, 1938), pp. 275-284.
- Cox, H. M., "What are the administrative and guidance uses of mathematics examinations?" *American Mathematical Monthly*, Vol. XLVIII, No. 5 (May, 1941), pp. 317-319.
- Cox, H. M., "A program of instructional research and student guidance," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, Vol. XVII, No. 3 (April 1942), pp. 351-359.
- Cox, H. M., and Harsh, C. M., "Sub-correlation in course marking," *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. XXXIII, No. 5 (May 1942), pp. 379-384.
- Cox, H. M., "Pre-study examinations in mathematics," *National Mathematics Magazine*, Vol. XVII, No. 8 (May 1943), pp. 351-359.

## Toward the Better Teaching of History

PHILIP D. JORDAN

NOT FOR a quarter of a century has public and academic interest in the place of United States history in the schools and colleges of America received as much discriminating attention as has been given it within the past two years. Twice during a period of only twelve months, the *New York Times*, after investigations made by Benjamin Fine, charged that American students were ignorant of the story of their own history and their own national heritage.<sup>1</sup>

Although the results of these surveys were challenged, they seemed to confirm what many historians had long suspected. During the past twenty-five years it was not uncommon to hear on many lips the phrases that "history was on the way out," that "United States history was not practical," and that what was needed were more courses of a "utilitarian" nature which would assist the student in meeting "life situations." Such courses of instruction would deal with contemporary problems, as present-day standards of living, poverty, crime, current political trends, and analyses of today's economic difficulties. The orientation course and the course which attempted to "integrate" or to "fuse" all phases of knowledge—sociology, government, economics, history, literature, geography, and even religion and philosophy—were conceived as substitutes for a knowledge of the basic development and maturity of the American way and of American ideals. The *Times* surveys seem to confirm and make real the impression that courses in the history of the United States were none too popular either with students or with educators.

The *Times*, believing that its survey statistics were correct and that its interpretations were justified, said that:

College freshmen throughout the nation reveal a striking ignorance of even the most elementary aspects of United States history, and know almost nothing about many important phases of this country's growth and development.

Eighty-two per cent of the colleges of this country do not require the teaching of United States history for the undergraduate degree.

College and university students need United States history even though they have taken such courses in high school.

A large majority of college freshmen showed they had virtually no

---

<sup>1</sup> *New York Times*, June 21, 1942; April 4, 1943.

knowledge of elementary aspects of United States history. They could not identify such names as Abraham Lincoln, Thomas Jefferson, Andrew Jackson, or Theodore Roosevelt, and they had little conception of the significant trends that have made the United States the nation it is today.<sup>2</sup>

The investigations brought to light other illuminating data: many more freshmen were taking courses in history other than that of the United States; more public colleges and universities demand United States history as a prerequisite for entrance than do private or denominational colleges; by and large, United States history is not required for the undergraduate or graduate degree in "any of the colleges or universities with the possible exception of the teachers' colleges where nearly one-half did make it compulsory"; liberal arts colleges and universities which "account for most of the undergraduate students in the United States, are more opposed to the compulsory teaching of United States history than any other of the educational groups"; it "would seem . . . that in a little more than half the teacher training centers of this country men and women can be licensed for teaching positions without having had any course in United States history, either on the secondary or collegiate level"; United States history, in most institutions, is not a required subject for students majoring in economics or sociology; students majoring in government, for the most part, found that they were obliged to take courses dealing with the history of the United States; and some college presidents or administrators were in favor of making United States history courses compulsory.

Findings such as these, as might be expected, brought waves of approval and storms of criticism from persons in almost every walk of life.<sup>3</sup> The National Education Association, the past president of

<sup>2</sup> *New York Times*, April 4, 1943; see also *Congressional Record*, April 6, 1943, 2998-3009, "Survey of United States History in Colleges and Schools," *Sen. Doc.* 26, 78 Cong., 1 Sess., Washington, D.C., 1943.

<sup>3</sup> See, for example, Allan Nevins, "American History for Americans," *New York Times Magazine*, and "More American History? A Letter," *Social Education*, December, 1942, 343-6; Erling Hunt, "More American History," *ibid.*, October 1942, 250-2, and "American History in Democratic Education," *ibid.*, December, 1942, 346-53; Charles A. Beard, "A Challenge to Educational Leaders," *The Civic Leader*, September 28, 1942; Philip D. Jordan, "The New York Times Survey of United States History," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, September, 1942, 238-42; Edgar B. Wesley, "History in the School Curriculum," *ibid.*, March, 1943, 565-74; Philip D. Jordan, "Is American History on the Way Out?" *The Chronicles of Oklahoma*, March, 1943, 9-16, and "Preserving Our National Her-



the National Association of Manufacturers, and men in public office approved the spirit of the surveys.<sup>4</sup> The *Saturday Review of Literature* remarked, as did many other Americans, that "It would be a pity if our colleges lagged behind in furnishing through courses in history the essential basis for successful building of the future—a knowledge of the past."<sup>5</sup> Such journalists as Dorothy Thompson and William McDermott expressed themselves in favor of adequate instruction in history, and the problem was debated on the floor of the Senate of the United States.<sup>6</sup>

Not all sentiment, however, throughout the nation approved either the method or the results of the two investigations conducted by the *Times*. Erling M. Hunt, editor of *Social Education*, thought the history test given by the *Times* to about 7,000 students was "weak in its exclusive attention to memory."<sup>7</sup> Other individuals charged that the test was weak mechanically, that students did not answer the questions seriously, that the findings did not represent the true condition in schools, and that the *Times* survey was "one of the biggest hoaxes in American history".<sup>8</sup>

By this time the issue had been joined and both sides were engaged in sharp controversy which, for a time, promised to produce more heat than illumination. Even the conservative historical associations of the nation began to take an active interest. In April, 1943, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, meeting in Cedar Rapids, Iowa, passed a resolution which called for the appointment of a committee "to study the current controversy concerning the teaching of American history and prepare a report consisting of a description and analysis of the situation, a statement of principles, and such specific recommendations as seem warranted."<sup>9</sup>

Within a month this program was under way, and it was announced that the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies had been granted the sum of \$10,000 from the Rockefeller Foundation for a comprehensive survey of the history and social studies pro-

itage," *Annals of Iowa*, October, 1943, 99-104; and Bernard De Voto, "The Easy Chair," *Harper's Magazine*, July, 1943.

<sup>4</sup> *New York Times*, June 28, 30; July 3; September 13, 1942.

<sup>5</sup> *The Saturday Review of Literature*, September 5, 1942, 10.

<sup>6</sup> *Congressional Record*, April 6, 10, 1943.

<sup>7</sup> *New York Times*, April 6, 1943.

<sup>8</sup> *New York Times*, April 8, 1943.

<sup>9</sup> *New York Times*, April 25, 1943.



grams in American schools and colleges. A committee of historians and educators headed by Dr. Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota was appointed to initiate and complete this task.<sup>10</sup> This group was assisted by numerous educators, historians, and social scientists from practically every section of the nation.

The full text of the report was published in January, 1944, and sheds much more light than heat upon the entire history and social studies programs as found in American schools and colleges.<sup>11</sup> There seems little doubt that its recommendations will be considered seriously throughout the country by both teachers and administrators who are already beginning to think of curriculum revision in terms of post-war conditions. And it is entirely possible that both approach and content will be influenced, beginning in the grades and continuing to university level, by the recommendations contained in this 144-page analysis. Certainly, the report is worthy of the closest scrutiny by American educators who wish to inculcate in students the democratic tradition in the most able manner. This means, of course, not only a knowledge of the past in their own country, but also an awareness of the relationship of the United States with the nations of the world, for today it is generally agreed that the true narrative of the United States must not be taught in conformity with the doctrines of isolationism. The student, for example, must be made aware that the American Revolution was only one segment of a world conflict. It is recommended that all high school students take a course in world history.

The Committee began its work by preparing and administering *A Test of Understanding of United States History*.<sup>12</sup> This was given certain high-school students, military students, social studies teachers, and a selected group of persons listed in *Who's Who in America*. Although the results were not so poor as the *Times* test indicated, nevertheless it was found that Americans do not know as much history as might be expected. The Committee found also that most pupils in elementary schools, junior high schools, and senior high schools were enrolled in American history courses, but that the number of students taking college work in American history was much smaller. It would seem, therefore, that, on the lower levels, enough pupils were enrolled in American history courses and that sufficient

<sup>10</sup> *New York Times*, June 23, 1943.

<sup>11</sup> Edgar B. Wesley (Director of the Committee), *American History in Schools and Colleges*, New York: Macmillan, 1944.

<sup>12</sup> For the complete text of the test see, *American History in Schools and Colleges*, 125-44.

courses are being offered. Improvement in the quality of work being presented is now deemed more essential than an increase in the number of courses. To meet this need, the Committee has suggested a general sequence of course offerings beginning with the grades and continuing through high school.<sup>13</sup> Such a program, of course, is of vital importance as most youngsters of the Republic do not go to college and therefore must receive their historical training in the lower institutions of learning.

The situation in the colleges and universities, of course, is entirely different. Most students enter college with some training in their own national backgrounds. Some of these continue the interest and many more elect other fields of activity. And all too frequently those who do continue their work in United States history find the course to be only a repetition of what they have had previously. It is little wonder that they become disgusted with college history and forsake it as soon as possible for newer and more attractive fields. If history on the college level is to become both meaningful and popular, it must be made more attractive and mature by historians themselves. It must cut boldly across cultural and intellectual boundaries and must present, in interesting fashion, the whole history of American ideas and ideals. It must deal with racial groups, with the folk music and art of a restless people, with religious philosophies and activities, with the rise of humanitarianism, with agriculture and science, with political doctrines, with regional characteristics, and with humor and literature.<sup>14</sup>

If the college undergraduate is not to find that his history is the "same old stuff," he must be given reading lists that are wisely chosen with an eye to developing not only an historical sense, but also an appreciation of lucid exposition and literary style. He must be introduced to the historical novel. In short, college history courses must be enriched so that they become a real intellectual experience. This means, of course, the best possible type of instruction by individuals who are themselves historians in the sense that not only do they understand the factual skeleton of history, but that they also appreciate—and can interpret to others—the color and drama of the historic process. A survey course, conceived in this spirit and presented with regard to the topics mentioned above, might do much to make

<sup>13</sup> *American History in Schools and Colleges*, chap. VI.

<sup>14</sup> Alexander C. Kern, "American Literature in the Teaching of American History," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, September, 1943, 243-5.

the present offerings far richer. Better teaching of history is what is now most needed; not more or different catalogue offerings.

Concrete proposals to assure better teaching in the social sciences and in history are advanced, some of which may provoke considerable discussion and others may radically influence the offerings of universities. There is no doubt, as the Committee indicates, that inferior instruction must result when a community feels that teaching is an inferior task, when it is careless about selecting its teaching personnel, when it pays low salaries, and when it attempts to restrict the teacher as a citizen. It seems equally true that the social studies teacher must have a liberal education in the broadest sense, rather than be subjected to a narrow, limited professional curriculum. This does not mean, of course, that the professional subjects, such as educational psychology, tests and measurements, and methods courses, should be ignored.

Other recommendations concern the certification of teachers. The Committee states bluntly that no more life certificates should be issued, but recommends that all certificates be issued for definite periods to be determined by age and experience. It is believed that this type of restriction may improve the quality of instruction. It is further suggested that certain of the scholarly societies—the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the American Political Science Association—might establish committees in certain areas of the country which would pass upon the certification of teachers in an advisory capacity.

Students should be encouraged to register for graduate work which is especially designed to meet their needs. All too frequently summer school offerings fail to meet this condition. Inadequate offerings during the summer when many teachers register for instruction may be due to the fact that some institutions require the summer school to be self-supporting, that the administration of the summer session may be listless, that members of the instructional staff may prefer to teach elsewhere, to engage in writing, or even to vacation rather than to accept the small salary which summer school pays. Correction of these weaknesses would involve careful attention on the part of summer school administrators to courses which would actually fit the needs of the teacher, to an increase of summer school salaries which would permit competent men to teach, to the development of exchange professorships which would stimulate enlargement of vision and new teaching experiences during the summer months, and to the creation

of courses which would appeal to mature individuals who have themselves been teaching. The Committee feels that teachers should return to summer school, but should be cautious in selecting only institutions which understand the teachers' needs and which attempt to meet these needs.

It is of interest to note that the Committee believes that the primary function of the historian is to interpret the past, so that it may shed light upon the present, but it feels that courses which concern themselves immediately with contemporary problems should be reserved for instructors in other fields—government, sociology, and economics. The Committee seems to feel also that courses which do concern themselves with the immediate present should not bear the historical label. This does not imply that such courses are not worthy of a place in the curriculum, but only that they do not come within the scope of history and hence should not be confused with offerings which concern themselves with the past.

That the study of history possesses merit and contributes in a positive manner to students, the Committee has no doubt. It believes that history, properly taught, stresses chronological order and therefore builds in the student an awareness of change and continuity and of evolution and decay; that it introduces students to artistic and intellectual movements; that it gives a perspective; that it puts events and persons in their proper setting; that it illustrates human behavior; and that it has an interesting story to tell. And last, but not least, it aids in giving the student an understanding of his way of life in relation to the world. History which is poorly taught, however, may do none of these things. The realization of these goals depends almost entirely upon proper instruction. And here is where the Committee indicates that the most insistent need lies today in American colleges and universities.

It must be remembered, however, that even adequate instruction can not guarantee individual proficiency. Even the *Times* pointed out editorially that it would be "unrealistic to believe that a course in American history can work miracles." It is felt, however, that better history teaching may secure better results. President Roosevelt put the issue squarely when he said: ". . . a nation must believe in three things. It must believe in the past. It must believe in the future. It must, above all, believe in the capacity of its people so to learn from the past that they can gain in judgment for the creation of the future."

## Social Crises and Educational Progress\*

J. WATSON WILSON

### I

FOR the third time in three decades, a crisis of major proportions has focused national attention upon education—particularly higher education. Exigencies of the present war, like those of the World War and the depression, have directed attention primarily to changes with the result that the air is simultaneously filled with acclamations and lamentations.

Hardly had the Japs unleashed their torpedoes when the rush of institutions to modify their accepted patterns and practices caused educators to choose sides. On the one side are those educators and institutions who view social crises such as the present war as opportunities for educational adjustments. The Educational Section of the Sunday New York *Times* has, over a period of months, carried numerous articles expressing this point of view. For example, Dr. W. W. Charters of Stephens College foresees better schools as a direct result of the war;<sup>1</sup> President Clement C. Williams of Lehigh University declares that war is compelling experimentation;<sup>2</sup> President Edmund E. Day of Cornell University contends that the present and immediate past have focused attention upon certain serious weaknesses in education;<sup>3</sup> and President James B. Conant of Harvard believes the present crisis provides "opportunity to progress. . . ."<sup>4</sup>

Attacking the problem more specifically, President Henry E. Allen of Keuka College applauds the elimination of wasted time which the war has brought;<sup>5</sup> Dean Carl A. Kalligren of Colgate University welcomes the shattering of provincialism and the elimination of cynicism and sophistication among college men;<sup>6</sup> Professor Harvey

\* This article is an abstract of a dissertation entitled *Social Crises as Opportunity for Change in Higher Education* presented by the author to the faculty of the Graduate School, Yale University, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, June, 1943.

<sup>1</sup> September 6, 1942. All following references are to the Sunday *Times*, except where otherwise noted.

<sup>2</sup> April 12, 1943.

<sup>3</sup> March 15, 1942.

<sup>4</sup> Conant, James B., "No Retreat for the Liberal Arts," New York *Times Magazine*, February 21, 1943, pp. 5, 37-38.

<sup>5</sup> May 10, 1942.

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*



Lee Marcoux of Tulane University acclaims the impetus war is giving to adult education;<sup>7</sup> and Professor Dorothy W. Weeks of Wilson College outlines the new opportunities for women graduates.<sup>8</sup>

Such thinking is not confined to the educators of the United States. A British school superintendent, for example, recently declared, "The three previous advances in education coincided with a period of war—in 1870, in 1902, and in 1918. Perhaps we shall again make history."<sup>9</sup>

The educational prophets who have been quoted or paraphrased were selected not because they possess intuitive insight concerning the direction which higher education may take in the years to come. Rather, they were selected because their opinions are more or less typical of that group of educators who anticipate, and perhaps to some degree welcome, changes in higher education. Only time can prove or disprove their theories. However, the significance of their statements is to be found not so much in their specific predictions as in their agreement that the war will bring about changes and that many of these changes can and will be desirable.

In opposition to those who welcome certain of the war changes, there are those who view many of the changes with regret and even, in some cases, antagonism. Many of them have also been heard in the Educational Section of the *Times*. Among them are Dr. William S. Dye, Jr. of Pennsylvania State College, who looks askance upon the present stress upon technical courses;<sup>10</sup> Dean Herbert E. Hawkes of Columbia University, who fears that "the things which have been considered important for 2,000 years" may be tossed into the scrap heap when the war is over;<sup>11</sup> President Stringfellow Barr and Dean Scott Buchanan of St. John's College, who believe that "the current tide of acceleration and vocationalism . . . is impairing academic standards and is emphasizing fundamental flaws in higher education;"<sup>12</sup> and I. D. Weeks, who believes that "in these days of war the age-tested functions of the university must be kept intact. . . . The exigencies of the present are great and will have to be met, but . . . A university must concern itself with the culture of the past."<sup>13</sup>

<sup>7</sup> September 13, 1942.

<sup>8</sup> July 12, 1942.

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>10</sup> July 19, 1942.

<sup>11</sup> April 12, 1942.

<sup>12</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>13</sup> Weeks, I. D., "The State University and the National Crisis," *School and Society*, 55:197-199, February 21, 1942, p. 199.

These two groups of individuals observe the same changes; both attribute many of them to the present war. They differ not on the degree of change which is taking place, but upon the desirability of these changes. The former group would not agree that all changes are good; neither would the latter agree that all changes are bad. Both would agree that certain changes are bad, that others are good. Both are conscious of the fact that change has direction. It is the direction which causes anxiety.

To be sure, this anxiety-raising problem of direction takes its point of departure in certain specific changes, but it is rooted deep in educational philosophy. Whether a particular change is received with applause or regret, depends upon whether it proves anxiety-relieving or anxiety-creating in terms of one's individual point of view. Those who welcome certain current educational innovations do so because they believe change is requisite to survival, because they see in the neoteric the triumph of intelligence over intellectualism, the watch tower over the ivory tower, the functional over the cultural. Victories such as these are deprecated by those with opposite views.

Certain significant questions are implicit in the anxiety which crisis changes create: (1) Do higher institutions make more, less, or the same amount of change during critical as compared with noncritical periods? (2) Is change facilitated by crisis, is change impeded by crisis, does change grow out of crisis, or is there no apparent relationship between change and crisis?

The importance one attaches to these questions depends to a considerable degree upon his attitude toward current educational problems, and upon his philosophic point of view. If colleges and universities need to become increasingly functional: (1) educational progress stops if colleges do not make changes during critical periods; (2) educational progress is retarded if fewer changes are made during critical than during non-critical periods; (3) educational progress is probably retarded if only the same amount of change is made during critical and non-critical periods (If social change is accelerated and changes in higher education remain the same, the gap between the college and the community grows larger; the college contributes to social lag); and (4) educational progress is maintained or enhanced only if more changes are made during critical than during non-critical periods.

But changes seldom if ever exist in isolation. In general they are related to pre-crisis trends or to the demands of crisis. If the changes

instituted during the crisis are not related to the demands of the crisis, the functionalists would say that the college is failing to meet the needs of the community, is becoming less functional. In the former case, progress is affected; but here the resolution of the crisis is affected.

Finally, change has direction. If colleges and universities can either advance or retrogress during periods of crisis, change must have a point of focus from which direction can be determined. Unless changes are rooted in pre-crisis thinking and planning—educational trends—the functionalist will probably say that they may meet the demands of the immediate crisis, but they will not contribute to the long-term progress of higher education. Realizing the futility of trying to return to a former state, the functionalist is likely to favor those changes which not only meet the immediate demands of the crisis, but which, in addition, are rooted in pre-crisis thinking and planning, which are compatible with his basic point of view, and which are congruent with his blue-print for the future.

From the point of view of the functionalist, then, progress stops or is retarded if critical periods do not bring the same or a greater amount of educational change as compared with non-critical periods, education ignores its social responsibility if its changes are not directed toward the resolution of the crisis, and the long-term progress of education is thwarted if crisis changes are not compatible with pre-crisis trends.

## II

While this opinionated speculation might be extended indefinitely, perhaps a systematic study of these questions would prove of more value. Accordingly, the remainder of the discussion is based upon a study of some 1500 changes (in admission requirements, graduation requirements, the curriculum, and the administration) introduced by five pairs of institutions<sup>14</sup> during the years between 1911-12 and 1942-43. Special consideration is given to ten periods which were isolated for comparative study: Pre-World War (1913-14 through

<sup>14</sup> Selected because they were somewhat representative of the dominant types of colleges over the country the following pairs of institutions were studied: Wellesley College and Mills College, Yale University and the College of Holy Cross, the University of Chicago and the University of Michigan, Oberlin College and Muskingum College, and Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute and Case School of Applied Science.

1915-16), World War (1916-17 through 1918-19), Post-World War (1919-20 through 1921-22), Non-Major Crisis (1923-24 through 1925-26), Pre-Depression (1927-28 through 1929-30), Recession (1930-31 through 1932-33), Recovery (1933-34 through 1935-36), Post-Depression (1936-37 through 1938-39), Pre-Present War (1938-39 and 1939-40), and Present War (1940-41 and 1941-42).

By ranking each change<sup>15</sup> in comparison with every other change, and ranking each period in comparison with every other period, it was possible to arrive at an "index of change" by which each critical and non-critical period might be compared with respect to the extent and significance of change. By this process, it was discovered that the majority of the colleges and universities studied made more changes of importance during critical than during non-critical periods: they made more changes in admission requirements, graduation requirements, the curriculum, and the administration during the wars and the depression than during comparable non-critical periods; they made more changes during the World War than during the years immediately preceding and following the war; they made more changes during the depression than during the pre-depression and post-depression periods; they made approximately the same amount of change during the early years of the present war as during the years immediately preceding the war. These changes were of sufficient duration to make them of importance in the life-history of the institutions.

The present war represents the only discrepancy in this background picture. Since the present war had not reached maturity when the latest information was made available, this discrepancy may be more apparent than real. During 1941-42 a sharp increase in the tempo of change was observed in all areas studied. If the tempo discernible in the fall of 1942 continues through 1943-44, the innovations introduced during this war period will doubtless exceed in scope and importance those made during any other period—critical or non-critical. Most of these institutions are clearly on the march.

Although change does not necessarily indicate educational progress,

<sup>15</sup> Changes were ranked of much importance, of more than average importance, of average importance, of less than average importance, or of little importance on the basis of the following criteria: number of students affected, number of faculty affected, number of departments affected, the relationship of the changes made to the total possible change, the degree to which changes in one area correlated with changes in other areas, and the duration of the change.

it is an essential requisite for progress from the point of view of the educational functionalist—especially in a crisis. Since adjustment is requisite to survival, since institutions must adjust if they are to live constructively, if they are to contribute to the resolution of the crisis, if they are to fulfill their social obligations, most of the institutions studied fulfilled the first requisite for progress in any crisis situation—they made changes.

Having isolated the crisis changes, it was possible, through the co-operation of representatives of each of the institutions studied,<sup>10</sup> to determine the relationship of each change to crisis demands and pre-crisis trends, to determine whether change: (1) was facilitated by crisis, (2) was impeded by crisis, (3) grew out of crisis, or (4) was in no way related to crisis.

Most of the changes made by these colleges and universities were found to be dominantly related to pre-crisis trends—to pre-crisis thinking and planning: most of the changes in admission requirements, graduation requirements, the curriculum, and the administration introduced during the wars and the depression were related primarily to pre-crisis trends; most of the changes introduced during the World War, the depression, and the present war were primarily related to pre-crisis trends. Similarly, a substantial percentage of all changes, in all areas, for all periods was facilitated by crisis. A somewhat smaller percentage of changes grew out of crisis. Only one change—that in the area of the curriculum—was impeded by crisis.

Confronted with crisis situations, these colleges and universities acted; they made changes. But they did more than engage in random activity; they acted with purpose. Their activities (the changes they made) had a point of focus. They were rooted in pre-crisis thinking and planning.

Crisis, then, accelerated pre-crisis trends. It had a catalytic effect—to borrow terminology from the chemist—upon change: it enabled institutions to make changes which otherwise might have been impossible; it quickened the pace of educational adjustment; it enabled some changes to be more comprehensive and complete than otherwise might have been possible. Crisis had an effect upon the tempo, scope, and intensity of change. In short, for most of these institutions, it provided opportunity for educational readjustment.

<sup>10</sup> Although the list of institutional representatives who assisted with original research is much too long for inclusion in this brief abstract, the author wishes to acknowledge the co-operation which he received from each of the ten institutions.



Most of the institutions studied, then, fulfilled the second requisite for educational progress in any crisis situation—the changes they made were related to long-term plans.

Finally, the changes made by these institutions during the three critical periods had direction. Up to the World War, these institutions tended to make their admission and graduation requirements more stringent and to guard zealously the narrow limitations of their curricula. Since then the trend has been reversed. Stated differently, the World War proved an opening wedge in cracking hide-bound practices. Each of the succeeding crises has widened the breach.

During the World War, these institutions reorganized admission requirements by broadening their elective lists to include commercial, vocational, and scientific subjects; they ceased dictating course content and textbooks for subjects offered for admission. Paralleling these changes in admission requirements, the changes in graduation requirements most characteristic of the war period purported to provide more electives, greater flexibility, the unification of the various degrees, and the replacement of certain cultural subjects with certain functional ones. During this period, for example, Latin and Greek began to relinquish their positions to the modern languages. Likewise, curricular changes of the period included the introduction of degree programs in teacher education, nursing, home economics, journalism, economics, and the applied sciences.

The depression, more than any other critical period, facilitated changes—accelerated pre-crisis trends. A substantial percentage of the important changes accelerated during this period had their inception during the World War. Intelligence tests, which were developed at Columbia University during the World War, were adopted on a large scale, and colleges and universities expressed a new interest in the personal qualities of their students. Graduation requirements, too, were liberalized, as most of the institutions studied de-emphasized specific required course lists and substituted area requirements, providing for both generalization and specialization through divisional majors, general field majors, functional majors, plans of general studies, and general area courses. By chance or design, these changes were related to many curricular ones, including the development—formally and otherwise—of a distinction between the upper and lower years of the college, the organization of courses into larger units, the development of survey courses, and the combination of related departments. Purposely or accidentally, the innovations of this period evidenced a desire

on the part of these colleges and universities to determine and meet the needs of the individual students. To implement these and other changes, many new personnel positions were created and the work of the more traditional personnel officers was broadened.

Perhaps because of proximity, the changes which were accelerated during the early months of the present war resembled closely those of the depression. Admission policies and practices continued to de-emphasize the pattern of high school subjects and to place still greater confidence in comprehensive examinations, as contrasted with subject-matter achievement tests. Although certain of the institutions introduced rather spectacular changes, such as the awarding of the bachelor's degree at the end of two years, the greater number continued to expand their general courses, and to make it even easier for students to scale departmental barriers. Certain of the institutions, for example, introduced more non-departmental, interdepartmental, combination, or functional majors.

Obviously, these changes had direction—functional direction. The majority of the changes introduced during the three crises studied, tended to make the institutions more of watch towers and less of ivory towers; they were in the direction of intelligence and away from intellectualism. By their changes, these colleges and universities intended to serve better the needs of the whole student. Whether under compulsion or by their own volition, most of these institutions ceased rationalizing their lack of activity with the all too familiar: "We have always done it this way," or "We have never done it that way." During the World War, the depression, and the present war, these evasive replies were "out for the duration."

From the point of view of the functionalist, then, most of the institutions fulfilled the third requisite for educational progress in any crisis situation—the changes they made had functional direction.

### III

Since these institutions made more changes during critical than during comparable non-critical periods, since the changes they made had a point of focus in pre-crisis trends, and since the changes had functional direction, from the point of view of the functionalists, crisis contributed more to educational progress than any other social phenomenon during the third of a century. Crisis was a boon to functionalism. It created a feeling of insecurity in which progressive change

thrived. The functionalists are jubilant because crisis rudely shattered the complacent security which lulled higher institutions into lethargic conditions.

Since social crisis accelerated educational change, since it facilitated changes related primarily to pre-crisis trends, since it accelerated functional changes more than non-functional ones, he who would attempt to look beyond the present verbal cross-fire, he who would attempt to anticipate the post-war pattern of higher education must: (1) study pre-war controversies and the philosophic differences in which they are rooted, (2) determine the direction of the pre-war trends, and (3) analyze the current and ever-changing demands of the crisis. Only in this way can the student of higher education determine which of the pre-crisis trends the war is accelerating, which of the controversies of pre-war vintage the crisis is helping to resolve.

One should not infer from this discussion that progress is the inevitable result of crisis. Rather, the inference intended is that the majority of institutions studied, intentionally or accidentally, approached crisis positively rather than negatively, aggressively rather than defensively. They enlisted, purposely or otherwise, the insecurity inherent in the crisis to make progressive change. There was, of course, a wide range of attitudes among these institutions toward change, just as there was on the part of those educators who were quoted and paraphrased earlier. Certain of the institutions exhibited considerable pride in their crisis changes; one institution refused to admit any changes.

It seems evident that educational institutions can utilize the insecurity inherent in crisis to make educational changes. These changes can contribute to the immediate crisis situation, or to progress, or to both. Random changes are likely to contribute merely to the former. Routine changes are likely to contribute only to the latter. But change can do both. It can contribute to the resolution of the crisis and still be compatible with the pre-crisis trends. Such changes are rooted in pre-crisis thinking and planning; they contribute to educational progress.

From all of this discussion, it seems quite obvious that the post-war college or university will not be identical with the pre-war one, certain traditionalists notwithstanding; neither will the post-war institution be unique, certain functionalists notwithstanding. Rather, it will be a mixture of the old and the new. Resulting as it must from the interaction of forces both within and without the institution—all of which

will be colored by circumstances of crisis,—it will be more closely related to the community than its predecessor.

This directional pattern is, in a very real sense, responsible for the current diversity of attitudes. The pattern is so clear that only a few months ago some educators even suggested that institutions of higher education should not risk their great traditions by continuing to participate in the crisis. Rather, it was suggested they should close their doors until after the war!

Such thinking harbors many fallacies. It assumes, for example, that the post-war world will be sufficiently similar to the pre-war world so that higher education could begin where it left off; that after the war, as before it, society will reward traditionalism; that post-war society will continue to have confidence in and to patronize institutions which refuse to contribute to the resolution of the crisis lest it have an effect upon them. Such thinking places the "sacred cows" of particular institutions and social groups above the welfare of society as a whole.

Such thinking is highly complementary to the major thesis which has been developed in this discussion. Those individuals and institutions whose thinking is of this bent realize that change is a "given" in any crisis situation, that crisis accelerates change, and that the direction of change during any critical situation is likely to be functional. They resent both the change and its functional direction. They realize that social crises provide opportunity for change in higher education.

## The Education and Training of Naval Personnel

HARRY E. ELDER

SHIPS, docks, planes, guns, projectiles and all other material appurtenances of the navy would be worthless without a well educated and well trained naval personnel. To see that each person in the navy receives the preparation which will make him most effective is one of the chief functions of the Bureau of Personnel of the Navy Department. Each enlisted man, through testing and guidance, is fitted into the niche for which he is best qualified. Some, after "boot" training go directly to a naval assignment; others are distributed among 190 selected schools throughout the country according to their abilities, aptitudes, and previous education.

Before the war between 300 and 400 men were graduating annually from Naval Reserve Officer Training Corps units prepared to go immediately into active service. These men were, primarily, engineers or members of some other specialized group and, secondarily, naval officers—the exact reverse of graduates of the Naval Academy at Annapolis. Now, colleges with N.R.O.T.C. units are graduating annually approximately 1,300 officers. These programs are on a permanent basis; they had been in operation prior to the present war and will continue after peace comes.

On July 1, 1943 all N.R.O.T.C. students were ordered to active duty in the new Navy Training V-12 Program. From March 1, 1944, all members of the N.R.O.T.C. will come from the V-12 program—a proportionate quota from each unit to make up a total of approximately 1,450 at the end of each term of four months. Before reporting to the navy these men will receive two terms of training in the basic curriculum of the V-12 program plus an additional period of five terms in an N.R.O.T.C. school. Approximately 1,000 per month will be completing a total of seven terms by November, 1945.

Midshipmen's Schools are located at Northwestern University, Notre Dame University, Columbia University, Plattsburgh, N.Y., and the United States Naval Academy. The mission of these training centers is to produce officers with a broad general background rather than specific operational skills—officers capable of understanding and



appreciating the significance of the work of men over whom they may be in immediate command. Prior to November 1, 1943 students in these schools included three groups: V-7's from the colleges, SV-7's or inductees, and men from the fleet. The requirement for admission since November 1, 1943, has been the completion of a V-12 curriculum.

The first three weeks at a Midshipmen's school are devoted to indoctrination, basic ground work, testing, interviews, the issuance of uniforms and books, inoculation, military drill, seamanship, etc. At the end of this period each man is rated upon the basis of all activities in terms of his fitness for the training and from eight to ten per cent of all candidates are directed into other channels. Those found qualified take the oath of Midshipmen and receive two terms of training of six weeks each. The schedule in the school for deck officers is about as follows:

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Hours per week</i>
Navigation .....	4
Seamanship and Communications .....	4
Ordnance .....	5
Damage Control .....	2
Recognition Training .....	3
Practical Drill and Training Films .....	4
Infantry Drill and Inspection .....	6
Calisthenics and Swimming .....	2
Study .....	28
	<hr/>
Total program .....	58

Throughout the two terms of six weeks each a mark is given in each subject each week and men are placed on restriction and deprived of week-end liberty as necessary to achieve the highest possible quality of work. A few are separated from the school at the end of each period of three weeks. The total attrition from admission to graduation approximates fourteen per cent. The fact that seniority of men completing the course at the same time is based upon class standing is ample indication that much emphasis is placed upon superior achievement.

Upon completion of the Midshipmen's course the men are assigned to duty according to the needs in various fields. For the first 10,000 graduates leaving the school at Columbia University this method resulted in the following distribution:

	Percent
Local defense .....	26
Amphibious forces .....	21
Capital ships .....	7
Destroyers and P.T. Boats .....	16
Auxiliary ships .....	14
Diesel Engineering School .....	4
Submarine Chasers .....	8
Mine Warfare .....	2
Radar .....	1
Miscellaneous .....	1

The training program of the Marine Corps of the Navy is an illustration of the fact that each division of the Navy receives preparation suited to the work it is to perform. Because the major mission of the Marines is to serve as a landing force and to co-operate with the Army after landing, the training received by men and officers is a hybrid of naval and army training and, although the Corps is an integral part of the Navy, rank among Marines has the same designation as comparable rank in the army. Many Marines receive their general education in our colleges and universities. Special training is received at Parris Island, at Quantico and at other specialized bases. As in other branches of our armed forces much practice and many maneuvers with regular battle equipment constitute a regular part of the training of Marines. Infantry regiments practice making frontal and flanking attacks against an imaginary enemy; engineering units handle supplies and engage in construction and camouflage work; service troops become expert in handling food and medical supplies, amphibious tractors, bulldozers, etc.; the artillery unit drills until proficiency is acquired in laying an actual barrage of actual projectiles to pave the way for an imaginary infantry attack upon an imaginary enemy; snapshooting, sniping, and mortar-firing are as realistic as possible without the presence of an actual enemy. Candidates for training for commissions in the Marine Corps come from V-12 contingents in the colleges and from the service. Final selection of men from the V-12 program is made after officer qualifications are established at the end of the second semester in college. The Marine Corps—like other divisions of the Navy—has no room for men with muscle only; a mind capable of mastering and applying psychology, history, languages, mathematics, science, map reading, etc., is the first requisite.

That thousands of women constitute an important portion of naval personnel is attested by the fact that approximately 4,000 WAVES

are in training at any given time on the campus of Hunter College in New York City. This institution—for the duration—is being operated entirely by and for the Navy. Here trainees remain approximately twenty-six days. During this comparatively brief period the young women are tested, classified, uniformed, drilled, and taught the principal facts about the Navy, the causes of the present war, etc. At the end of this "boot" training many of the girls are assigned to work for which they already possess the required skills while the remainder—approximately seventy-five per cent—are sent to other schools where they receive further training adapted to their aptitudes and interests. Eventually each girl makes it possible for one more man to be moved to a battle front.

During the present war thousands of civilians, having received commissions in the navy, have been sent for indoctrination to Fort Schuyler or other training centers. For approximately two months these men are given intensive instruction in the history, traditions, organization, function, equipment and personnel of the Navy. They are then assigned to the type of duty for which they are best qualified by their educational background and civilian experiences.

The Navy, in its training program, uses every conceivable type of visual aids. These devices—maps, charts, diagrams of battle and convoy formations, animated films, cross sections of Diesel engines, etc.—are usually made by naval personnel and are seldom the products of commercial corporations. In this respect the Navy is setting an example which many colleges and universities might do well to emulate.

Success in any war depends largely upon securing *early* and *sufficient* pertinent information about the enemy and, at the same time, preventing similar data from coming into his possession. "Intelligence" is evaluated information and is obtained by the Army, Navy and Federal Bureau of Investigation working together. It has its uses ashore, at sea, and in foreign countries. Throughout the world, wherever our armed forces may be stationed, our Intelligence system has teams working in close co-operation with the appropriate officials of the Army and Navy. When facts and materials with extremely significant "Intelligence" implications are unearthed, they are rushed on fast planes to the United States, reproduced as speedily as possible and distributed to all bureaus and individuals concerned with their use.

Current practices of the Navy are based upon the latest scientific data discovered and validated largely through its own research. The Naval Research Laboratory, authorized in 1916 and opened in 1923 on a tract of fifty-eight acres along the Potomac River, now includes an additional 200 acres and has a staff of more than 1,700 employees. The main divisions of the Laboratory—each with an outstanding civilian scientist as director—are: (1) Radio. (2) Sound. (3) Mechanics and Electricity. (4) Physical Optics. (5) Chemistry. (6) Metallurgy. (7) Interior Communications. The names indicate the general type of research carried on by each division. Not a single division is content to be a follower in its field; it insists upon leading. Much advancement has been made since 1941 in the areas of shark repellent fluids, self-sealing gas tanks, underwater sound detection and interpretation, physical optics, the removal of static from planes to improve radio communications, radar, etc. Beyond any foreseeable date there will be naval research of types valuable in both war and peace. Nothing is too much to expect.

# Democracy and Education

HAROLD D. GRIFFIN

**N**EITHER Democracy nor Education is lightly achieved. Education doesn't just happen. It is a long, slow process, requiring patience and practice, and the formation of habits. And the same is true of democracy. It is a long, slow process, requiring patience and practice, and the formation of habits. For neither does democracy just happen. Democracy and education are both achievements.

What is democracy? Democracy as a political concept is direct government by the people acting collectively. And what is the essence of democracy? It is self-governance, self-discipline. And this, you must admit, is basically an individual achievement. For self-governance and self-discipline are assured only by making self-governance and self-discipline into habits. And habits are attained by practice with satisfaction, especially when one is ready to act. Democracy, then, like education, is basically an individual matter, and training for democracy must be individual training as well as social training. Democracy, to be effective in one's adult life, requires preparation, training, habit formation, self-discipline, self-control, self-government.

Historically, democracy arose as a protest of the many against the selfish rule of the few. Too great authority vested in one man or in a small group seems inevitably to degenerate into tyranny. Democracy is an attempt of the people collectively to eliminate this danger by formulating their own government.

But democracy means much more than government. Gradually, although not consistently nor uniformly, democracy has been reaching out into broader social theory. In our day, political democracy alone is increasingly seen to be insufficient. Many believe that real political freedom is impossible where there is no genuine economic democracy.

The central concept in true democracy is that there shall be equity of opportunity to live and attain that for which an individual's capacities and talents have set his direction of growth, irrespective of unfavorable conditions of birth, wealth, or environment. This means a high regard for the individual as such, even though it may be necessary at times to curb the antisocial activities of certain individuals. It means that, insofar as possible, each individual shall have the right to enjoy life, and to become the finest that it is possible for him to be.

This, then, is the essence of American democracy—not that all men



are born equal in abilities, but that all are born equal under our law, and that all shall have equity of opportunity; that no one shall be deprived of this opportunity because of the accidents of creed, color, or economic conditions. True, we have fallen far short of complete attainment of this ideal; but, nevertheless, it remains our ideal. The problem before us now is so to regulate our society that this equity of opportunity may be realized with greater thoroughness and efficiency. This, you will admit, lies as much in the field of education as it does in government; and truly, education and government are but two aspects of the same process.

And not only do we need the services of education for extending the benefits and opportunities that democracy should afford. We need the services of education for making true democracy, itself, a possibility. Paper guarantees of freedom are insufficient to make democracy function. The people themselves must be prepared for self-government.

The founders of our republic acknowledged this. George Washington wrote in his farewell address: "In proportion as the structure of government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened. Promote then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the diffusion of knowledge . . . which is, in every country, the surest basis of public happiness. In one in which the measures of government receive their impressions so immediately from the sense of the community as ours, it is proportionately essential." Jefferson, also, held similar ideas, as a perusal of his educational writings will reveal.

Today, American education for democracy faces a very real decision. We have emerged from our Pollyanna, ostrich-like complacency, and we see how very real are those world-wide ideologies which by teachings and force would destroy all that Americans should hold dear—the right to practice, even within our own borders, the theory and method of democracy.

The dictators have marshalled, in their attack upon the right of man to govern himself, every device at their command—schools, press, radio, cinema—and now enforce these teachings by ruthless pressure upon the hapless peoples whom they have enslaved. The time has come for us, while preparing our armed strength to resist the storm gathered against us, to marshall all our available educational facilities—our schools, press, radio, and screen—in a unified program which will inform our people of the perils and problems facing our American democracy. Were we to utilize these devices with somewhat the same efficiency and unity displayed by our antagonists, we could

within a very short time fire our citizenry with a devotion and loyalty to our beloved America, and to that great and fundamental truth, which has been so soft-pedalled in America during the last two decades, that to save one's life, one must lose it in social labor for a great and overwhelming ideal. We can only attain such national solidarity within the brief time at our disposal by such a realistically inspired and consciously directed educational program.

If we are to make such a program successful, we must stress several factors. First of all, we need to understand the meaning of democracy. Do you believe that the word is understood by young America? If you do, won't you please try the following sentence on a group of young people?

"He believes in Democracy."\*

Ask them which one of the following five words most nearly corresponds in meaning to the word "democracy" as used therein:

(1) common people, (2) party-politics, (3) popular government, (4) citizenship, (5) progress.

I have given that item to hundreds of college freshmen and sophomores in Arkansas, Missouri, Nebraska, and North Dakota, and regret to report that just about one-half of them miss it. The usual wrong responses are "common people," "citizenship," and "progress." It does, however, separate the more alert from the duller students. It is answered correctly by about 25 per cent of the young men and women in the lowest fifth, 30 per cent in the 20-40 percentile group, 40 per cent in the middle fifth, 70 per cent in the 60-80 percentile group, and by about 90 per cent of the students in the top fifth. Truly, if college students do no better than this, it is time that we teach the meaning of democracy as a way of life.

Second, it requires that our teaching be made functional and progressive—that we teach for adequate living in the present and the future. In the words of President Dykstra, "We cannot plan for the past or act in it. Our education must be concerned with coming generations as well as with the present. It must take account of advancing knowledge. It must not fall under the dead hand." Education in and for democracy must be dynamic rather than static, and must continually seek to advance and improve the conditions under which we live.

Third, we must apply the methods of science to the solution of our political, social, economic, educational, and moral problems. And the

---

\* This is item 40 on Form A of *The Inglis Tests of English Vocabulary*. Ginn and Company, Boston, copyrighted, 1924.

method of science involves the six great freedoms of science—freedom to propose, freedom to plan, freedom to experiment, freedom to discuss, freedom to expound, and freedom to appraise. Let us not flatter the dictators by imitating them. Even in times of crisis, we need to conserve as many of our liberties as will be consistent with national safety.

Fourth, we can best provide for the husbanding and propagation of democracy by furnishing a favorable environment for its nourishment and growth. An idle, hungry, and discouraged citizenry is hardly a wholesome soil for it. That is the breeding ground for incipient Hitlers and their followers. The widespread distribution of opportunity to earn a comfortable living and a fair measure of security is favorable for maintaining and extending a democracy. The desire to guarantee both freedom and security to the individual was one of the thoughts uppermost in the minds of the founders of our republic, and the success which attended efforts to provide both during the major part of our national history was the lure that brought millions to our shores—my father, and many of yours—to the Land of Liberty and of Opportunity—the Hope of the Ages come true at last! Here was Democracy actually functioning as a Way of Life, not merely as a paper guarantee! And we must recapture this reality—this ideal made functional. We must make the democratic idea and process work in a way that will achieve security and at the same time maintain freedom. Man has always valued both, but he has never been able to attain both together for any appreciable time. But America has done it, and can do it again. Education must face this issue, and help solve it. If it does not, it will degenerate into a mere instrument for preserving the *status quo*.

And fifth, we return to the thesis with which we began this paper: that we must train the individual in self-control, self-discipline, self-governance, and intelligent choice, through habit-formation begun in earliest childhood. In other words, if we seriously wish to have democracy, we must practice democratic living, and the home is a good place in which to begin it. There are really many things in which even a small child can be taught to exercise wise choice, and thereby, through guidance, learn basic factors of self-control and self-government. We can best learn a thing by living it. How strange that we should be so slow in comprehending that this primary axiom of education holds as surely for learning the democratic way of life as it does for any other learning! We say of pre-school infants, "They are too little to entrust with any degree of self-governance; there will be time enough later. . . ." And when they reach the elementary

school, "These children are still too young; perhaps in high school. . . ." Then in high school many school systems still evade the issue, and pass the youths on, expecting the college to deal with the problem. And when the college further temporizes, maturity and citizenship are entered with little practice in those factors we expect them to exercise wisely as citizens in a democracy—self-government, choice, self-discipline, self-control. Truly, if we do not form habits in these matters, we just as surely form habits of *not* exercising intelligent choice, self-control, self-discipline, self-government. One acquires self-control and self-government as he acquires other habits—by practicing them with some measure of success and satisfaction. When college students abandon self-government and the honor system, it is not a sign that they are too young to exercise self-control. It is an indication that they have never practiced it sufficiently to learn it, and to make it habitual. Where self-government does not work, it is largely because those who would practice it are untrained. When self-governance in small matters is begun in the primary grades and expanded as the children mature, self-governance in larger matters will be possible for these same children upon reaching the secondary school, college, and eventually, citizenship. The child who learns how properly to exercise choice in small matters, can, when intelligently guided, grow in grace and culture and control as he grows toward adulthood and full citizenship rights. Yes, truly, democracy is basically an individual matter, and training for democracy must be individual training as well as social training. Democracy, to be effective in one's adult life, requires preparation, training, habit formation, self-discipline, self-control, and self-government.

In conclusion, I would quote the words of a great Democrat, Dr. Eduard Benes:

"The aim of Education is to obtain a better society. That is also the ideal of Democracy. This ideal is something so high, so valuable, and so dignified, that it is worth believing and living. It is worth being a Democrat.

"Do not permit such conceptions and ideas as are now trying to dominate Europe to get a foothold . . . in this free country. Because in the approaching battle for the victory of the Spirit against the Sword, the United States has a very great role to play. Be ready for that fight—be prepared—and be strong—O people of Democracy! To all right-thinking men and women everywhere, I give the motto of my beloved nation:

Pravda Vitezi—Truth Prevails."

high  
evade  
with  
y and  
xpect  
ment,  
nabits  
g in-  
One  
nabits  
ction.  
r sys-  
ntrol.  
ly to  
s not  
ined.  
imary  
arger  
g the  
who  
en in-  
as he  
truly,  
emoc-  
cracy,  
habit  
c, Dr.  
so the  
e, and  
being  
ng to  
cause  
t the  
y for  
y! To  
to of

## The Selection of V-12 Trainees

W. S. HOFFMAN

LAST fall I was fortunate in being selected as a civilian member of the committee charged with the selection of those students who were to be enrolled in V-12. A letter from Admiral Jacobs appointed me to this office, and a young lieutenant came to my office from the Pittsburgh Naval Procurement office, to swear me in.

On December 6 I reported, under instructions, to the Keystone Hotel in Pittsburgh, formerly the Keystone Athletic Club and now known to Navy men as the U.S.S. Keystone. On the "second deck" after I had "come aboard," I met Commander Lynch, the officer in charge. He introduced me to a group of lieutenants and to Dr. Arbuthnot, emeritus dean of the medical school at the University of Pittsburgh, who was the other civilian member of the committee. The third member of the committee was Lieut. (jg) Balfor. A yeoman acted as secretary.

We saw no applicants . . . only their papers. These papers consisted of the following:

1. The medical examination record.
2. The college or high school record.
3. Two recommendations.
4. Two interview records.
5. Front and profile photographs.
6. Parental consent forms.
7. The score made in a competitive examination.
8. Birth certificate.

The examination given those who desire to become enrolled in V-12 was not devised nor conducted by the Navy. A nationally known examining group prepared the examination and was responsible for conducting it. Just what this organization was was unknown even to Commander Lynch and, of course, to the other officers in Pittsburgh.

The most important documents were the two recommendations, and the two interview records. The recommendations were actually questionnaires. The recommender stated his relationship to the applicant, the period during which he had known the applicant, and answered various questions. The most intriguing question, to me, at least, was one which asked if the recommender would be willing to



have his son serve under the recommendee when he became an officer. Replies to this question were revealing, to say the least, and frequently reversed the entire picture. Each applicant had had two interviews, each with a Navy lieutenant. The record of the interview was also recorded on a questionnaire. Among other items were: hobbies, offices held in school (denoting qualifications of leadership), positions held, etc. Four different sections of the questionnaires were to be scored from 1-2, 1-2, 1-4, and 1-4 points each. This would result in a minimum total score of 4 and a maximum of ten. All these scores were to denote a degree of acceptability and if, in the opinion of the interviewing lieutenant, the applicant was not acceptable—he was to be scored NA. If one lieutenant scored an applicant three or more points more than did the other, the applicant had a third interview. The interviewer never knew if he was giving an applicant his first, second, or third interview unless the applicant blurted it out but in the great majority of such cases we passed upon, the third interviewer had scored the applicant closer to the lower score already on record. Each member of the committee passed on each applicant's papers, recording the score on the envelope containing the papers on a scale of from one to ten if satisfactory, and NA (not acceptable) if unsatisfactory. In an astonishing number of instances Dr. Arbuthnot, Lieutenant Balfour, and I came within one point of each other's scores—that is, they would be read off by the yeoman as 6, 6, and 7; or 4, 5 and 4; etc. Frequently we had given identical scores. One week later we rescored a sampling made by the yeoman, including some who had been graded "NA," and others graded relatively low. In no instance did the second rating grade vary from the original by a single point although as individuals, we varied somewhat. Commander Lynch was surprised and pleased by these second scorings, checking so well with our original scores.

That was the job—the Navy does the rest, selecting first of all, all over the nation, those with grades of 10, then those with grades of 9, and so on till the quota is filled. If within any grade the quota would be exceeded—as for instance with a quota of 80 to be filled and the grade of 6 earned by 90, those with the highest scores on examination would be selected first.

On the final day Commander Lynch invited the committee to come "on deck" to see a group of twenty we had selected on the very first day, sworn into the Navy. A proud group of fathers and mothers

were waiting in the one-time ball room, and as Commander Lynch took his position, all interviewing stopped and everyone in the room stood at attention as the group of twenty walked in, stood at attention, and took the oath. The boys, many of whom were getting their one chance to go to college, looked like future officers, and as Dr. Arbuthnot said: "Well, Commander, they do look like the kind of young men I'd be willing to have my nephews serve under."

## Editorial Comment

### *Academic Bookkeeping*

A RECENT mail brought a pamphlet from the University of Chicago, written by President Hutchins, and entitled "The State of the University—a Report to the Alumni." Here is one among many arresting passages which we should like to call to your attention:

"After the war the sense of obligation to returning veterans should help the colleges and universities to break down and throw away the elaborate apparatus of academic bookkeeping in which they and their students have for many years been entangled. A mosaic of courses does not constitute an education, not unless a great educational artist directs the process. The college student who under the elective or semi-elective system makes up his own educational curriculum is not likely to be an educational Giotto. The number of months or years that a man has been an inmate of an educational institution sheds very little light on his education. The system of academic bookkeeping has tended to sink all the important questions, which are qualitative, in the quantitative information that the student has had a certain number of courses over a period of time. Admission to and progress through the educational system has been almost entirely determined by such considerations. Under these circumstances many men and women have been deprived of educational opportunities, for they did not have the time and money to invest in the process. Or if they had the chance to go to college they did not get an education because they did not know how to put the courses together so that they would add up to an education. The student proceeded not in terms of the work he could do but in terms of the time he had spent. In a system which placed such great emphasis upon time, time has been wasted in a scandalous manner. The revolutionary idea that the student could present himself for examinations whenever he thought he was ready to take them has gained very little headway.

"One can have very little sympathy with any program which is designed to get students through in a hurry, with short cuts to education. Education takes time. Education is the formation of moral and intellectual habits, and the formation of habits, by definition, takes time. One can insist, however, that the time should be well spent. The student should be constantly confronted with material challenging to him. When he has mastered it, and not before, he should pass on. Examinations should be so generalized that academic recognition could

not be obtained by merely totaling up grades in unrelated courses. In short, students should be admitted on the basis of their ability, regardless of academic bookkeeping, and they should proceed from one academic stage to another and finally be graduated in terms of what they know and can do, regardless of academic bookkeeping."

Now, considering that we Registrars earn a living largely by the nefarious practice of academic bookkeeping, we shall be forgiven if we find it impossible to go all the way with President Hutchins. So long as it is necessary to exchange information about students, and to report their achievement to other institutions, to graduate and professional schools, to certificating officials and examining boards, to prospective employers and government agencies—just so long will some form of academic bookkeeping be necessary. The system of credit hours and quality points which we have devised is an ingenious and extremely useful contrivance for measuring otherwise intangible things. President Hutchins' quarrel, of course, is not with these, but rather with the error into which we have all fallen of confusing the symbol with the reality, of placing the emphasis upon hours and points rather than upon the intellectual accomplishments they are supposed to represent. So many hours of credit equal an education, and hence entitle the holder to a degree. It is all very like Tom Sawyer's Sunday-school, wherein one earned a blue ticket by memorizing two verses of Scripture. So many blue tickets equalled a yellow one, and so many yellow ones could be exchanged for a Bible. You will remember the sequel in Tom's case: when he was awarded a Bible on the strength of tickets largely acquired by barter, he was called up to show off his knowledge of Holy Writ before distinguished visitors, and he came a cropper. There is room for suspicion that some of our degree holders make an equally dismal showing when they are called upon to exhibit their wares.

Often we hear a student say that he has such-and-such requirements to "work off" before he can qualify for his degree. Not so much more knowledge to acquire, not certain new fields to explore, not shining new horizons to be glimpsed, but requirements to "work off." The expression is always irritating, but perhaps it should not be, because we have only ourselves to blame if the student has shifted his attention from the substance to the shadow. We have overstressed our clever measuring-devices, with the result that he thinks, in good faith, that we are interested only in seeing him clear a given number

of hurdles. He is astonished when he is told—although he rarely is told—that one does not *get* an education; one *becomes* an educated person by dint of patient study and serious meditation and a tenacious search for truth. He always thought it was something you acquired, like a roadster, or else grew, like a moustache.

### *When Examinations Come Into Their Own*

Of one of President Hutchins' tenets we are bound to make trial in the post-war years, whether we like it or not. This is expressed in his statement that "students should be admitted on the basis of their ability, regardless of academic bookkeeping." After the war we shall be called upon to admit scores of men who went into military service before they finished high school, but who by the time they get back will be in their twenties. Obviously we cannot send them back to high school to study with boys and girls who are younger by three or four years chronologically and by a decade or two in experience and maturity. Some way must be found to measure their fitness to do college work so that those who are qualified may be admitted at once to college, and those who are not qualified may be directed into other activities. Fortunately the problem is already under expert study, and a testing program is being devised by a staff of specialists under the Armed Forces Institute, whereby it will be relatively easy to find the level of educational achievement of any student, and place him with a high degree of accuracy in the college work for which he is fitted. But we venture the prediction that this is only the entering wedge; that more and more we shall come to accept President Hutchins' opinion that a student should be admitted to examinations whenever he thinks he is ready to take them, and that more and more we shall base scholastic progress and scholastic honors upon the results of such examinations, and not upon mere time-serving. Certainly the giant strides that we are making in the devising of examinations and the interpretation of their results would justify us in admitting them to a place of great moment in the educational scheme.

### *Does Physical Education Educate?*

In these days when post-war planning is occupying much of the attention of everyone concerned with education, we are all very much in the mood to look with a critical eye upon accepted practices, and



to demand more than mere assertions as proof that they should be continued. Physical Education has profited heavily by the demands of the Armed Forces; it should submit at least with equanimity to some inquiry into the validity of its claims. A few decades ago we allowed it to intrude upon our curricula and indeed into our requirements, in a well-intentioned effort to leave no stone unturned in the enterprise of preparing our students for the fullest possible lives. We have given full faith and credit to the assertion that physical education as now conceived results in definite betterment for the students. This may be true, but if it is true it ought to be susceptible of proof. It ought to be easy, for instance, to show by definite tests and comparative measurements that after a course in physical education the students are demonstrably improved—in posture, in muscular development, in endurance, in resistance to infection, or in other aspects of physical well-being. If no such evidence can be adduced, then we ought to be persistently inquiring why we should continue to encourage so alien an intrusion into the educational scheme. The truth is that instruction in physical education is all too often routine, perfunctory, and unprogressive, and that it will continue to be so as long as students are forced into it and no effort need be made to attract or stimulate them. The sports sections of some newspapers recently stated that Iowa State College had announced the abandonment of all compulsory physical education, and would rely upon the effectiveness and the vitality of its program to attract students to it. Mr. Sage informs us that the statement was premature; that Iowa State had been experimenting with the idea, but was not yet ready to announce a final policy. In any case, from such an enterprise as this we may expect developments of real significance. An educational project that must compete for its students with other interests is not likely to go to seed. One which relies upon having its students sentenced to it inevitably comes to bear a deadly resemblance to other forms of penal servitude.

### *Write Your Congressman*

The Association of American Colleges, through its Executive Secretary, joined with other representatives of religious and educational bodies recently to present the following memorandum to Secretary of the Treasury Henry Morgenthau, Jr.:

On behalf of the churches, the colleges and other charitable organizations, we, the undersigned, request that proper consideration be given their interests in the Simplified Federal Income Tax Report, with which we are heartily in sympathy. We thoroughly appreciate the tremendous task of the Treasury Department in its present problems. We also are heartily in sympathy with raising the highest amount of taxes possible and in the quickest way possible for the present war.

However, our fundamental independent form of democracy depends upon the maintenance of churches, colleges and the charitable institutions that we Americans have supported so loyally through the years. Any attempt to slight their interests will inevitably lead to a totalitarian form of government which will include state supported churches, only state supported educational and other charitable institutions

We believe that no loss or particular inconvenience will ensue if a line is included on Form W-2, on which the employee may state to the employer on January first of each year the amount of contribution he plans to make to churches and charities (up to a total of 15 per cent of his income) in that year. Thus, the employee will not have the Withholding Tax applied to his charitable gifts, but, if he does not contribute according to his promise, he will be obliged to make adjustments in his report to the Collector of Internal Revenue for each year.

Secretary Morgenthau was favorably disposed toward the request, and expressed his willingness to do all he could to further the interests of the churches, the colleges, and charitable institutions. The truth is that over a period when the national income increased 86% and federal taxes 600%, contributions to church-related charities actually decreased 30%. If the very reasonable proposal expressed in the above memorandum does not become a part of the tax structure, the support of many educational institutions and similar enterprises will suffer further inroads. The Association of American Colleges therefore urges all interested persons to write to their own congressional representatives, to Secretary Morgenthau, and to Chairman Robert L. Doughton of the House Ways and Means Committee. The JOURNAL is glad to support this request. Here is your chance to lend the weight of your influence to secure an almost indispensable legislative provision.

## Book Reviews

*Education Faces the Future*. I. B. Berkson. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943, pp. xiii + 345.

This is the most recent production of the author of the widely read *Theories of Americanization* and *A Preface to an Educational Philosophy*. The book has emerged from a course in Contemporary Movements in Education given for the past six years at the College of the City of New York. It presents in a most interesting manner an analysis of the trends of American educational philosophy, and one of its distinctive features "consists in the way in which the issues of our educational policy are related to problems of social change and reconstruction." The production is an honest presentation of the facts concerning school theory and practice in the recent past. The author has given careful recognition to opposing points of view, but has not endeavored to establish a compromise position.

*Education Faces the Future* brings to the student of education a rich array of valid material concerning our educational theories, practices, progress and trends. It contains one of the most valuable lists of selected references to be found in any similar work. Among the references are the names and productions of America's foremost writers in the fields of education, philosophy, sociology, and economics. The complete, well arranged topical index affords opportunity for ready reference to any of the many excellent features of the book.

It would be impossible to include in this review anything but a most cursory report of the main features of Dr. Berkson's book. Each of the sixteen chapters deserves three times the amount of space set aside for the whole book review. The most valuable service I can render to my colleagues is to suggest that they read this book from cover to cover. It brings to the reader a reliable concept of American educational philosophy, principles, and practices. It gives a college registrar a splendid perspective of the whole field, a small portion of which he is attempting to understand and administer. The book is not lengthy when one considers the range of research it represents. It is written in a most readable style and it sets forth in bold relief both sides of many topics in which any student of education must be interested.

This book is divided into three parts. Part I deals with "Education and the Changing Liberal Philosophy." It is pointed out that the educational experimentation of which we have been so proud has not been effective because of the lack of a unifying principle. This has been due for the most part, to conflicting educational theories. The period of social crisis is cited as one of the causes of this confusion. Hope is found in

the fact that "the three great periods of educational theory in the history of European thought were associated with times of upheaval and violent change." It is not unthinkable that out of the present situation may come a comprehensive restatement of American educational policy. As predictive of a future educational advance, it is suggested that a sound philosophy must not have as its sole foundation a conception of the universe, but rather, a conception of society. American educators accept the concept "democracy" as a "foundation principle and social philosophy on which our educational philosophy is to be based."

"Liberalism" is the term used to identify the system of thought which has guided our modern social and educational development. It is designated not only as "a pattern of ideas" but also as "a system of institutions." Politically, it went hand in hand with the revolt against monarchical government. One of its chief weaknesses, however, is inferred in the question of its economic foundations. It is suggested that the new liberal social order will call for two things: "(1) the curtailment of the sovereignty of the nation-state in the interest of a World State; and (2) a reconstruction of our economic system to form a controlled economy." This points toward a changing pattern of ideas. It foretells a new intellectual and moral set-up that is coming into being in the Western world. It points toward "a return to old ideas and values found in our cultural and religious tradition, as opposed to the extremes of an individualistic civilization." In this change is found, too, a type of liberal mind that does not share the beliefs characteristic of the nineteenth century. The new liberalism reasserts the principles of democracy. Liberty, equality, and fraternity come in for primary consideration. Interdependence, emphasized by the growth of science and the advance of technology, is one of the motivating influences that are destined to improve social welfare.

Part II is entitled "Progressive Education in Transition." In this section progressive education is dealt with as a general educative process. To assist in an understanding of today's progressive movement, a brief survey of the development of modern educational theory in Europe is given. Time-honored discussions of opposing points of view representative of the positions held by the progressives and essentialists are vividly described. The far-reaching effects of the educational ideas of John Locke, Comenius, and Rousseau are explained. German idealism and self-realization as portrayed by Froebel, and others, is clearly shown, and the influence of "naturalism" is weighed. One of the most important influences on American education is described as that exerted by the Pestalozzi-Fellenberg manual labor movement in which farm and industrial schools were established for the purpose of affording a combination of "practical, social, and academic education."

In the chapter devoted to "Progressive Education in the United States"

the development and progress of our plan of "free education for the masses" is described in detail and shown to be, truly, a great accomplishment. Some of the internal weaknesses, such as mechanical repetition and routine, studying by rote, and harsh discipline are noted. In this chapter consideration is given to the philosophies and accomplishments of David R. Page, Emily Huntington, Felix Adler, William James, G. Stanley Hall, and other pioneers in American educational theory and practice. The accomplishments of the University Laboratory Schools are listed, and the departure from the old restrictive methods is observed in these three elements discerned in the conception of the new day: (1) Provision of a richly educative environment, (2) Concentration of studies, and (3) The "cultural unit" conception. The philosophy of John Dewey is called "the foundation for contemporary progressive educational conceptions."

It is observed that between 1875 and 1925 the American public school made great progress—better school organization and training of teachers, orderly classroom procedure, excellent text books, better knowledge of the learning process, and the development of standardized tests. Liberal educational theory had had considerable influence, but such new conceptions were embodied in private rather than public schools. The Progressive Education Association, founded in 1919, is given credit for its effective work. These three lines of development are cited in describing the position of the Association: (1) an emphasis on the inherently social nature of the individual, (2) the adoption of an organismic dynamic psychology, and (3) a recognition of the "crisis" character of the contemporary social and economic situation. The Association, in 1941, gave a new statement of its point of view, by recognizing that "the purposes of education are not discernible in the child alone, apart from his social relations, and the need for giving the social problem more explicit consideration was acknowledged." One whole chapter is devoted to new schools and new methods as followed in American progressive education. Considerable attention is given to the contributions toward our educational philosophy and progress by John Dewey. While Dewey's conceptions are not held to be identical with progressive education, that movement and his theories "have produced similar social, psychological, and intellectual tendencies, and have measurably influenced each other." Some conception of the large and important place Dewey occupies in any careful study of American education can be gained from the fact that three of the sixteen chapters of this book are Dewey-centered.

Part III deals with "School and Society in an Age of Reconstruction." It points out clearly that the new relationship of the school to a changing social order must now be a part of any discussion of educational philosophy. In this part there is stimulating consideration of the relation of the school to society, but the central question is "whether—and in what sense—the



school can or ought to be deliberately utilized as an instrument of social reconstruction."

The early American educational conception that a universal public system of education is the prerequisite to responsible self-government is proven through reference to the writings of such as Franklin, Jefferson, Washington, Madison, and others. These leaders held that education safeguarded the stability of the democratic state, and made for equality of opportunity for the individual by offsetting disadvantages due to birth and low estate. The formation of our system of free public schools, beginning with the Jacksonian era, is referred to as the "victory of democratic over aristocratic conduct of government." The first half of the period is marked by struggle to obtain recognition of the principles of a system of public support. The second half, 1890-1930, is characterized by great expansion and improvement in facilities and instruction. Progress was attributed to the political victory of the common people and the march of industrial progress. Despite the general recognition of the need of a common school education, the existing bitter opposition is described, and Horace Mann and Henry Bernard are acclaimed for their priceless leadership. In the period 1870-1930 American educators concerned themselves with the problem of "embodying the democratic educational purpose in terms of curricular aims." The aim was two-fold: the development of the individual, and promotion of social welfare. The pattern of this period shows clearly the effects of Herbert Spencer's "education for complete living." The extent to which our educational philosophy has expanded since the establishment of our free public schools is shown by Chapman and Counts in *Principles of Education*, published in 1924. The following are listed as the "six great interests in which man must always be concerned": (1) caring for their bodies; (2) rearing of their children; (3) securing the economic necessities; (4) organizing for civic action; (5) engaging in recreation; and (6) satisfying their religious cravings. In the above-mentioned text it is emphasized that "the school, at all levels, must abandon its narrow literary and scholastic tradition and steadfastly associate and identify itself with the activity of a people searching for a democratic mode of life."

The closing chapters deal with education as an instrument of social reconstruction. It is held before us "as a means of advancing the welfare of the individual and securing the social good." A very comprehensive view of the position of the reconstructionist conception of the social purpose of the school is given in a re-printing of *Conclusions and Recommendations* of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, 1934. An indication of the manner in which the author adheres to his stated purpose to present all aspects of his subject is had in the fact that all of Chapter 14 is devoted to a treatment of the

theories of American educators who have never accepted the democratic, pragmatic, and social approach to education, but who tend to exalt the heritage of the past. These men are critical "of the reconstructionist philosophy as being too much concerned with the issue of social change and with contemporary problems."

In the last chapter the author gives the following broad definition: "Education is the art of bringing up children to live the good life in society." He states that this definition contains three points of reference: "a growing personality; a definite community; and a canon of standards, values, and ideals. In his enlargement on the contents of his definition he calls upon education and the schools to face a future in which many complex problems of a new day must be met and solved. Some of these will have to do with school organization; others with the curricula. The following are referred to as subjects and objectives that are generally accepted by American educators:

- "1—Fundamental Processes or Mental Tools—reading, writing, proper speech.
- 2—Basic School Subjects—mathematics, science, social studies, literature.
- 3—Manners, Mores, and Accepted Ideals—punctuality, courtesy, honesty, fair play.
- 4—Physical Development, Health, and Mental Hygiene—physical exercise and games, rules of personal health (including hygienic aspects of sex), emotional control, adjustment, etc.
- 5—Vocational Training and Economic Life—work activities, food, clothing, shelter, problems of economic life and proposed solutions, etc.
- 6—Art, Music, and Literature—personal enjoyment, creative expression, participation in plays, choruses and orchestras, development of higher standards of taste and ways of occupying leisure."

The closing words of the book express the hope that the educational philosophy of the future will be a synthesis of these principles: "a belief in the potentiality of the child, in the possibility of a better society, and in man's power to direct his own future."

J. G. QUICK

*University of Pittsburgh*

*General Education in the Progressive College.* Benezet, Louis T. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943, pp. 190.

This report of three ventures in progressive education at the college level will be read with interest by students of higher education. It is a well-written account of the significant choices and changes in the

educational programs of Sarah Lawrence, Bennington and Bard Colleges from their founding to the present. The purpose is to clarify the meaning of the controversial label "progressive education" by illustrating what this philosophy has come to mean in the actual operation of colleges that have proclaimed themselves to be testing-grounds for "progressive" ideas, in higher education.

In Chapter I the author seeks to develop a concept of general education, since the present report is limited to this aspect of the total college program. After surveying the opinions of experts the only conclusion reached is that general education is education which is not specific or vocational. Nowhere are the major objectives of a program of general education explicitly defined nor is much attention given to the characteristics students might be expected to develop in a sound program of general education. At times the author uses the term to connote little more than "general knowledge" or "spread of knowledge" while toward the close of the report he refers to general education as a "kind of value or attribute in the overall educational process itself . . . defined differently for each individual who comes to possess that value." A rather dubious distinction is made between quantitative ("fact-giving") and qualitative ("attitude-building") aims of general education. The vagueness of this concept of general education, which obviously is not confined to this present volume, makes it difficult to determine the nature and extent of the preparation that the progressive college or any other institution may be affording students for their many unspecialized phases of living, outside and beyond the classroom. Clarification of the objectives of general education must be a first essential step in appraising the contributions of the progressive college in this important area.

A careful description of the aims, admissions policies, courses and methods of study, and evaluation and control of these three colleges is given in Chapters II-IV. These materials, which have been gathered from college catalogues, published reports, interviews and correspondence with those responsible for the development of these educational plans, have been well organized to set forth the general design for education in each institution. The final three chapters summarize and interpret these findings, the author's own thinking being supplemented by results from interviews with selected faculty members in each institution. No use is made of student opinion, an omission explained on the grounds that students had contributed little to the conceptual or planning aspects of these progressive education programs. It might have been illuminating, however, to find out what the actual consumers of these new plans conceived to be the major educational objectives and in what respects they thought the colleges were attaining them.

While the author makes it abundantly clear that deep-seated and

relatively permanent interests of students provide the base for general education in these institutions, the reader emerges with scant understanding of how other fields of human activity come to be viewed in relation to this dominant interest. Illustrations might well have been included of how breadth in educational experiences is achieved by working outward from students' underlying motivations. Techniques of individualized education, such as trial-majors, tutorials, advanced seminars and field projects receive considerable attention, but few clues are furnished as to how imaginative tutors or instructors utilize these to help the student attain a breadth of outlook and understanding in the field of human culture as a whole. The fault is probably not the author's, however, for these colleges have apparently devoted far more of their energies to the development of programs around individual student's interests, abilities and needs and the vitalization of educational experiments than they have to the preparation of each student for active and intelligent participation in our society.

The author's persistent references to "the two foci for education: the development of the individual and all his powers: and the orientation of that individual toward contemporary society and its needs" suggests some necessary dualism, even a conflict between the individually-centered and the socially-centered aims. If the needs of students and the adults they become are thoroughly studied, this antithesis is bound to disappear. There can be only one true focus for educational effort—the development of the individual for full and effective living in a free society.

The author has made a valuable contribution by demonstrating the essential unity of aims and methods in these three colleges, and by posing certain critical problems that must be faced if these institutions are gradually to modify both aims and methods toward a more concrete social concern.

RUTH E. ECKERT

*Associate Director, Bureau of  
Educational Research  
Associate Professor of Education  
University of Minnesota*

*Mobilizing Educational Resources.* Melby, Ernest O. (Ed.). The Sixth Year Book of the John Dewey Society. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943, pp. xi + 242.

Eight authors here have collaborated with Ernest O. Melby as editor in the preparation of sixteen chapters. The theme is that our educational arrangements are unsatisfactory, are not adapted to the solution of the problems of the future, and that federal support and control of education are both necessary.

The shortcomings of our present educational policies are described, and

these are ascribed in part to unsatisfactory methods of control. There is too much decentralization. Control rests too often in the hands of representatives of property, interested more in keeping taxes down than in educating everybody. Teachers are not adequately organized; they should follow the trends of the co-operatives, the farmer's groups, and the labor unions. This would give them more power, better pay, and greater independence in deciding what to teach and how to do it. Such organizations as the W.P.A., the C.C.C., and the N.Y.A. were not only good but also prophetic. Class groups should be organized and represented. Youth organizations, such as the American Youth Congress, should be developed and their power utilized. Radio programs and motion pictures should be free from selfish control and their use for educational purposes developed. The economic pattern of the future should be planned and controlled to avoid waste and distribute resources. "Attitudes toward public debt will also need to be revised in the economy of the future. False analogies should not be carried over from private to public debt. An internal public debt is different from the private debt of an individual." The principle of effective free education for all should be put into actual practice, regardless of economic difficulties, and with the aid of federal funds. Centralization of power and effort should be accomplished by the organization of all teachers and by the establishment of a new federal agency. This agency is to have authority similar to such agencies as the War Production Board, the Office of Price Administration, the War Manpower Commission, and the War Labor Board. It is proposed that a board of eleven members be established; five from the ranks of the educational profession, one each from the groups of business men, industrial workers, farmers, Negroes, and youth. Several should be women. The eleventh, and chairman, should be a great national figure—all members to be appointed by, and hold office at the pleasure of, the President of the United States.

Most leaders will recognize some truths and sound principles in this book; many will feel that it contains a good deal of propaganda. Those who believe that our solution lies in the centralization of authority in the federal government will agree with it; the reviewer does not. The remedies may lie in the other direction, namely, through arousing the interest of the citizens themselves. The schools are, and should be, close to the people; wherever the people take a real interest in the schools they are apt to be good.

J. P. MITCHELL  
*Stanford University*

*Student Personnel Work in the University of Minnesota.* Williamson, E. G. and Sarbin, T. R. Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing Co., 1940, pp. iii + 115.



As Co-ordinator of Student Personnel Services and Counselor of the University Testing Bureau, the authors review personnel services over twenty-two years. They define the objective of personnel work in higher education thus: "to assist in the alleviation of those conditions which interfere with the students' development; to assist in increasing the effectiveness of the University's instructional program; and to facilitate students' progress toward intellectual, social, moral, and emotional maturity."

The fundamental basis of modern personnel work is formed with six concepts—(1) the *obligation* of the educational institution is to the whole student, not only to the mind; (2) there is worth in the individual; (3) problems confront all students; (4) many problems need professional assistance; (5) problems can be prevented by appropriate policies; and (6) the complexity of some problems calls for integration and co-ordination among personnel workers and instructors.

Counseling is the logical outgrowth of the policy of selection of students by the use of the valuable but often contradictory results of ability and achievement tests in the Testing Bureau. The University of Minnesota recognized its responsibility to assist students judged capable of college work by developing a system of Faculty Counselors, special freshman advisers who worked long after the newly established Freshman Week, and a Student Health Service and Speech Clinic, all essential to adequate educational and vocational guidance.

The counselors find data on the health of the students at the Student Health Service Office which requires an examination of every matriculant and makes available one examination per year to all students. In the Schools of Medicine, Dentistry, and Nursing, yearly examinations are required, while seniors in the School of Education are also examined by requirement.

Of the nine per cent of the general student body needing some form of treatment in the Speech Clinic, the counselors are able to get a small proportion rehabilitated. Complete diagnosis is accomplished there but lack of funds prevents complete coverage of the cases. The Dean of Student Affairs, a man, and the Dean of Women, a woman, seem to have parallel responsibilities, i.e., high school contacts, housing, discipline, financial aid, and group and personal guidance. In addition, the Dean of Student Affairs supervises the approval of sponsors and advisers for organizations other than sororities, registration, planning of activity programs, and approval of speakers, and sits as adviser on many student committees.

Especially noteworthy is the Social Co-ordinating Committee, made up of representatives from twenty-four student organizations. In a large university of 14,000 students such a committee is indispensable to the good health of the social life of the students. This committee has developed three courses: most important, the Leaders Course, providing lectures on leadership and an opportunity to "become better leaders of their own

groups" through exchange of experiences. I have often seen effective self guidance through this democratic means of growth in inter-college conferences and therefore wish to underline this excellent accomplishment at Minnesota. A Publicity Course and an Etiquette Course have also been sponsored by this committee as well as co-operative and co-ordinating activities among existing campus groups.

At the University of Minnesota problems of curricula, discipline, and probation as related to the academic work of the individual student are included under the term, personnel work. A detailed description is given of the machinery of the "Students' Work Committee" composed of deans and assistant deans. At the time of crisis in academic work all the personnel services of the university are channeled to the student through this committee.

Educational guidance is largely in the hands of major curricular advisers, representing specific academic departments. In the General College two full time and three part time counselors advise educationally, vocationally, personally, and socially in preparation for the educational guidance of the major advisers. These counselors are largely responsible for disseminating the personnel point of view among the major curricular advisers. The need for more orientation of the student has challenged the director of one of the four dormitories for men where eight student counselors have been chosen from the Graduate School to help orient students to the life and problems of the campus. Foreign students have their especially appointed adviser who gets into contact with them early in their first college year.

The University Employment Bureau, responsible to the Comptroller, deals with a large proportion of the student body, 55.5 per cent (figure in 1932) being wholly or partially self-supporting. Apparently there is close co-operation between this bureau and many personnel officers although there seems to be no *required* clearing of students' names who apply for work either with the Testing Bureau, the Health Service, or the dean's offices except in the case of women working for board and room. This seems to be a weakness in an otherwise excellent system for unless an O.K. regarding academic status and health is required of every applicant for a job, many students most in need of personnel counseling and aid will lose the benefit of the many services available. This important link in the chain of counseling may be difficult to forge in a large institution although it can be included in the procedures of a small college.

Placement of graduates in graduate schools or in remunerative positions might be closely related to this Employment Bureau and to the other personnel offices. As it is, placement seems to be carried on by schools and departments through their own committees and faculty members without connection with records of their former counselors. The pattern of employers' hiring procedures has shaped the various placement offices

and has consequently continued the decentralization. Here is found a thorough description of the placement services of the Institute of Technology where 81 per cent of the class of 1938 used personnel sheets sent to employers, of the College of Education, of the School of Business Administration with its complete follow-up of year-old alumni, of the School of Medicine where the chief concern is placement of internes, and the Department of Journalism which attempts to keep in touch with all of its graduates.

Although largely managed by students, the important activities of the Student Union, unfortunately available only for men, with a coeducational union still a dream of the future, of the Y.M.C.A., the Y.W.C.A., and intramural sports are all carefully outlined.

The Board of Admissions and Freshman Week likewise take their place under the title of personnel services.

The co-ordinating link for all counseling functions is the Faculty-Student Contact Desk administered by the Testing Bureau. Upon request, the Desk collects and distributes basic data to authorized personnel workers and faculty members. The authors recognize the need for the increased use of this "Desk." It is at this point again that a smaller institution might maintain an almost complete record for every student immediately available upon call as is the case at the College for Women of the University of Rochester.

With the various personnel offices and functions works the co-ordinator of Student Personnel Services, who serves to integrate and guide them. Under his direction studies can be made and flexibility as well as improvement assured.

Chapter IV where *personnel activities are analyzed in terms of function* will be of special interest to the administrator who wishes to compare personnel functions on his own campus to this system at Minnesota, one of the most comprehensive in our country. Co-ordination of personnel functions in contrast to centralization is defended in Chapter V where the whole complicated structure is presented in chart form. To an administrator seeking to develop the personnel point of view in a college or university already equipped with personnel services quite out of line with a structure which might be built from the ground up a survey of Minnesota's co-ordinated plan may be practical and helpful. Since a good administrator like a good educator will start with the material at hand and construct his new plan with it, the foregoing statement applies to many presidents and deans. Let us hope they will use this excellent presentation of Professors Williamson and Sarbin as a measuring stick rather than a divining rod.

ISABEL K. WALLACE

*Vocational Counselor and Freshman Class Officer  
College for Women, University of Rochester*

*Encyclopedia of Modern Education*, Rivlin, Harry N., and Schueler, Herbert, Queens College. New York: The Philosophical Library, 1943, pp. xvi + 902.

Thirty-three years ago there appeared the first cyclopedia of education in the English language. Though such work had been compiled in France and Germany, the English speaking countries were without such a reference until Paul Monroe, with a group of fifteen departmental editors (including two Englishmen, one Frenchman, and one German) and hundreds of contributors brought out the Cyclopedia of Education in five volumes. The editor in his preface stated the need of such a work and that that issue attempted to be "complete in scope but not in treatment."

The present volume attempts only the field of modern education, leaving to the older work the material on ancient and medieval education, though the line of demarcation between that which is modern and that which is not, is not clear and it is easy to feel that some things have been left out that should have been included and vice versa.

Many terms appear which have come into educational usage during the past thirty years and which did not appear in the earlier work. For example, "abreaction" is probably a new word to most of us: acceleration, accomplishment quotient, achievement age, achievement quotient (to pick but a few from the first few pages) are so common that we may be surprised that they were not in use thirty years ago. Similar examples of both usual and unusual words which are so modern that they did not appear in the earlier work can be found throughout the volume. This, of course, is one of its major values. On the other hand, the former gave brief biographies of a very large number of men and women who have been influential in education while the present gives very few.

The thing that disturbed the reviewer more than anything else was the absence from the list of contributors of names we have been accustomed to consider authorities in the fields treated. Thorndike in psychology, Dewey in philosophy, Charters in research, Knight in history of education, Horn in elementary education, Strayer and Englehart in administration, and others who have led in their respective fields for years are conspicuously absent. Their names appear in the references given at the end of the discussion of topics in their fields, but they did not give the concise presentation as contributors to the volume. To many this will appear as a very distinct weakness.

Unquestionably, the editors had a severe task in selecting what could be included in a single volume. On the whole, it seems to have been well done and will, therefore, serve a real need. The print is clear and it is hoped that the binding is substantial enough to stand the hard service such a book should have.

E. J. ASHBAUGH  
Dean, School of Education  
Miami University

## In the Journals

A lot of water has run under the educational bridge since Pearl Harbor. The job we had to do was, and still is, one that calls for the best that is in us, and we can well be grateful for the opportunity we have had to be of vital help in our country's effort to win the war. That there is a bigger job ahead for the schools, and that school people and the public know it and are doing something about it, is quite clear to anyone who reads what is written in today's periodicals.

To mention a few, the January issue of *The Educational Record* has a discussion of "The Off-Duty Education Program of the United States Navy" by Lt. Commander Earl J. McGrath, U.S.N.R., which presents a clear picture of what the Navy is doing to provide educational opportunities for men in the service. Not counting those taking correspondence courses in the Armed Forces Institute and men in the "V" programs, forty thousand men, he says, are enrolled in regularly organized classes under Navy instructors, mainly former teachers. They are taking mostly mathematics, science, English, history, languages, and business subjects.

In the same issue of the *Record*, Dr. J. G. Umstattd, now of the University of Texas, discusses post-war education in the United States; and in the January issue of the *School Review* Dean Grayson N. Kefauver of Stanford University, now on leave in Washington, writes of education as an important factor in achieving an enduring peace. These are both significant expressions of the present responsibilities and opportunities of schools and colleges to take a leading part in building a post-war world, Dr. Umstattd dealing with the educational outlook in the United States and Dean Kefauver with its international implications. What Dean Kefauver has to say is of special interest now because of his recent appointment by the State Department to work with the International Education Office.

Educational Reconstruction in Great Britain is discussed in the January issue of the *Educational Record* by Stephen Duggan. Britain, he says, is education-conscious as never before and is proceeding on a new philosophical basis, equality of educational opportunity. Young people's colleges are being established in the secondary field and there has been astonishing development in provincial or municipal universities; and while present enrollment is largely military, the emphasis is on the humanities.

Canada is planning for junior colleges, according to W. P. Percival, President of the Canada and Newfoundland Education Association, writing in the January number of the *Junior College Journal*. He says that 150 such institutions should be established in various centers with curricula diverse enough to serve as large a clientele as possible.



A brief report of the December 3 conference on post war problems held at the University of Minnesota is given in the February 5 issue of *School and Society*, by Tracy F. Tyler. Among many other things discussed at that conference was the indication of a tremendous interest in liberal arts subjects on the part of returning service men, the need of adequate counseling for them, the estimate that only ten per cent will return to their former type of education and the continuance of the present accelerated program.

Among the periodicals outside the field of education, the November issue of the *American Journal of Sociology* has a study on "Delinquency and Its Outcome in Court and College" which is of interest to school people. The writer, Austin L. Porterfield, describes it as based on a statistical comparison of the delinquencies of college students with the delinquencies of children brought to the juvenile court. The outcomes of the two groups vary greatly and the advantages enjoyed by the college group are contrasted with the disadvantages of the court group. The connection here with war problems is incidental.

In the January number of the *Monthly Labor Review* scientific training of women for war jobs is discussed, as well as vocational rehabilitation for disabled veterans, the establishment of textile trade schools in Argentina, and the training of labor reservists in the Soviet Union.

"Attitudes on State University Campuses" is the title of an article by Jay C. Knodel of the University of New Mexico in the December number of the *American Sociological Review*. It is the account of a study of attitudes toward campus and life objectives on the part of students in sixteen universities in various parts of the United States, carried out by rating scales. Physical or social development was rated highest by students as an objective of intercollegiate activities; medicine rated highest among the professions; home and children were the highest life objective; and the establishment of permanent world peace was given first place as an avenue for American leadership following the war.

These are but samplings of what leaders in and out of the field of education are thinking and writing about today. They give one a heightened sense of the part schools and schoolmen are to have in building a better world when victory comes.

J.A.A.

## The Colleges and the War Effort

Beginning February 1, student deferments under the selective service system will be sharply curtailed, the Selective Service System said in Washington. Students in scientific and specialized fields of study will be expected to fulfill quotas set up by SSS.

Here is the picture on student deferments, according to latest available information:

The scientific and specialized fields in which undergraduate students may be deferred, provided they will graduate on or before July 1, 1944, are aeronautical engineering, agricultural sciences, automotive engineering, bacteriology, chemical engineering, chemistry, civil engineering, electrical engineering, forestry, geophysics, marine engineering, mathematics, mechanical engineering, meteorology, mining and metallurgical engineering (including mineral technology), naval architecture, optometry, petroleum engineering, pharmacy, physics (including astronomy), radio engineering, and sanitary engineering.

An undergraduate student in a recognized college or university who will graduate on or before July 1 should be deferred, Selective Service, said, if:

1. The college or university certifies that he is competent and gives promise of the successful completion of a course of study majoring in one of the listed scientific and specialized fields.

2. The college or university certifies that if he continues his progress he will be graduated on or before July 1, 1944.

3. The National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel of the War Manpower Commission certifies the college or university.

An undergraduate student in a scientific and specialized field who will not be graduated until after July 1, 1944, should be deferred only if he is majoring in (1) chemistry, (2) engineering, (3) geology, (4) geophysics, (5) or physics, Selective Service said, and:

1. A recognized college or university certifies that he is majoring in one of the five courses listed and gives promise of successful completion of the course of study within 24 months of the date of certification.

2. The National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel endorses the certification of the school and also certifies that if the student is deferred he will come within the national quota fixed for such students.

The national quota of students who may be occupationally deferred at any one time by reason of their study of chemistry, engineering, geology, geophysics, or physics, has been fixed at 10,000 in addition to those who are deferred to graduate on or before July 1, 1944. This quota will be apportioned among the various schools by the National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel which will notify colleges and universities accordingly.

A student in pre-medical, pre-dental, pre-veterinary, pre-osteopathic, and pre-theological fields should be considered for occupational deferment, Selective Service said, if he is a full-time student in good standing in a recognized college or university and:

1. The school certifies that he is pursuing a course of study in one of these pre-professional fields and if he continues his progress he will complete the course within 24 months of certification.

2. It is certified by a recognized medical, dental, veterinary, osteopathic, or theological school that he is accepted for admission and will be admitted to the school upon completion of his pre-professional work.

### *The Amended Thomas Bill*

The Thomas Bill (S.1509), as presented to the Senate last fall (*Journal* for January, 1944) was referred to the Committee on Education and Labor. On February 9 it was reported back to the Senate in amended form. The new text of the bill follows:

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,*

That all members of the armed forces of the United States who shall have been discharged or relieved from active duty under honorable conditions on or after December 7, 1941, shall be eligible for education and training under this Act, provided they shall have been in active service for a period of at least six months. Persons who have had no service outside of the continental limits of the United States or in Alaska shall not be eligible for education and training under this Act if they have been discharged or relieved from active duty solely on their own initiative.

SEC. 2. (a) The President shall appoint in the United States Office of Education, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, an Administrator of Servicemen's Education and Training (hereinafter referred to as the "Administrator"), who shall administer the provisions of this Act. The administrator shall from time to time promulgate such rules and regu-

lations as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this Act; and he may exercise any power or authority conferred on him by this Act through such existing departments or agencies as the President shall direct, or through such officers and employees as the Administrator may appoint, with in appropriations made therefor by the Congress; and the Administrator may utilize the services of any legally designated State educational or vocational agency in the execution of this Act.

(b) There is hereby established an Advisory Council to aid and advise the Administrator in the execution of his duties. The Council shall consist of the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, the Federal Security Administrator, the Administrator of Veterans' Affairs, the United States Commissioner of Education, and six representatives of the public, to be appointed by the President, at least four of whom shall be recognized leaders in the field of education. The public representatives shall be selected as nearly as practicable on a regional basis. The members of the Council shall not receive any compensation for their services on the Council, but members other than Government members shall be reimbursed for all necessary travel expenses and receive a per diem allowance of \$15 in lieu of subsistence while away from their respective places of residence on the business of the Council.

SEC. 3. Persons eligible for education and training under this Act shall be entitled to receive education and training at any approved educational or training institution in which they wish to enroll, whether or not it is located in the State in which they reside, provided that they are accepted as students by such institution in any field or branch of knowledge for which they are found by such institution to be qualified.

SEC. 4. (a) Persons eligible under this Act shall be entitled to education and training at an approved educational or training institution for a period of one year (or the equivalent thereof in continuous part-time study), or for such lesser time as may be required to complete the course of instruction chosen by them, beginning not later than two years after the date of discharge or relief from active duty or two years after the date of enactment of this Act, whichever is later.

(b) A further period of education or training not exceeding three additional years may be provided for persons who have satisfactorily completed the first year of education or training and whose continued education or training will contribute to the national welfare: Provided, That no person shall be eligible for one such additional year of education or training unless he has had at least eighteen months' active service; no person shall be eligible for two such additional years of education or training unless he has had at least thirty months' active service; and no person shall be eligible for three such additional years of education or training unless

he has had at least forty-two months' active service. Such persons shall be selected on a competitive basis from those voluntarily applying for such further period of education or training. There shall be deducted from such further period of education or training to which any person may otherwise be entitled the academic equivalent of any period of education or training which he may have received under the Army Specialized Training Program or the Navy College Training Program. The further period of education or training shall be continuous instruction on a full-time basis as defined by the institution in which it is obtained. The number of persons selected for a further period of education or training shall, as nearly as the conditions of good administration may permit, be apportioned among the several States principally upon the basis of the number of persons supplied the armed forces by each State. The selection of persons for a further period of education or training under this Act shall be made by the State agencies provided for in section 8 of this Act, in accordance with standards and methods proposed by such agencies and approved by the Administrator.

SEC. 5. (a) The Administrator shall provide for the payment by the United States of customary tuition, laboratory, library, health, infirmary, and student-activity fees, and other similar fees and charges, to the educational or training institutions furnishing education or training to persons under this Act so long as such persons maintain regular attendance and are in good standing at such institutions: Provided, That such payments shall not include charges for board, lodging, or other living expenses, and no payments shall be made to business or other establishments furnishing apprentice or other training on the job. If any publicly supported institution has no established tuition fee or if the established tuition fee at any publicly supported institution (including the fee for nonresident students) shall be found by the Administrator, after recommendation by the State educational agency or agencies designated or created in accordance with the provisions of section 8 of this Act, to be inadequate compensation to such institution for furnishing education or training to persons eligible under this Act, he is authorized to provide for the payment of such compensation as may be fair and reasonable.

(b) Every person who attends on a full-time basis an approved educational or training institution in accordance with this Act shall be entitled to receive a subsistence allowance of \$50 per month while in attendance and in good standing at such institution. A person having a dependent spouse shall be entitled to receive an additional sum of \$25 per month as well as \$10 per month for each dependent child. Persons attending on a part-time basis and persons receiving compensation for productive labor performed as part of their apprentice or other training on the job at business establishments shall be entitled to receive such



lesser sums, if any, as subsistence or dependency allowances as may be determined by the Administrator.

SEC. 6. The Administrator may arrange for educational and vocational guidance to the persons eligible for education and training under this Act. He may utilize for this purpose the State educational agency or agencies designated or created in accordance with the provisions of section 8 of this Act. At such intervals as he deems necessary, he shall make public reports respecting the need for general education and for trained personnel in the various trades, crafts, and professions.

SEC. 7. The Administrator from time to time, but not less frequently than once every six months, shall transmit to the Congress a report of operations under this Act. If the Senate or the House of Representatives is not in session, such reports shall be transmitted to the Secretary of the Senate or the Clerk of the House of Representatives, as the case may be.

SEC. 8. The President shall request the chief executive of each State to designate the legally constituted State educational agency or agencies, or, if no such educational agency exists, to provide for the creation of such an educational agency or agencies, (a) for the purpose of selecting those persons who shall be entitled to receive a further period of education or training as provided for in section 4 (b) of this Act and (b) for the purpose of furnishing lists of approved educational or training institutions in such State which are found, in accordance with standards proposed by such agency or agencies and approved by the Administrator, to be qualified to provide education and training to persons eligible under this Act; but in the event the Administrator is of the opinion that additional institutions should be included in such lists from any State he shall make recommendations to that effect to the appropriate State agency or agencies. Wherever the State educational agency or agencies is not representative of all the educational or training institutions eligible for approval in accordance with this Act, the President shall request the chief executive of the State to appoint an advisory committee consisting of persons who shall represent the elementary, secondary and vocational schools, the colleges, junior colleges, professional schools, universities, and business and other establishments providing apprentice or other training on the job in the State, to aid and advise the State educational agency or agencies in the execution of their functions under this Act. Only such educational or training institutions as are included in such lists shall be deemed approved educational or training institutions within the meaning of this Act.

SEC. 9. As used herein, the term "member of the armed forces of the United States" means any member of the Army of the United States, the United States Navy, the United States Marine Corps, or the United States Coast Guard, or any of their respective components, any member of the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps, and any officer of the Public

Health Service detailed by proper authority for duty either with the Army or the Navy; the term "State" shall include the States of the United States, the Territories and possessions, the District of Columbia, and the Philippine Islands: Provided, That until the termination of Japanese occupancy of the Philippine Islands and the restoration of orderly processes of government therein, the provisions of this Act, to the extent that they require action within the territorial limits of the Philippine Islands, shall not apply; the term "educational or training institution" shall include public or private elementary, secondary and other schools furnishing education for adults, business schools and colleges, scientific and technical institutions, colleges, vocational schools, junior colleges, teachers colleges, normal schools, professional schools and universities, and shall also include business or other establishments providing apprentice or other training on the job under the supervision of an approved college or university, or any State department of education or State board of vocational education, or any State apprenticeship council or the Federal Apprentice Training Service established in accordance with Public, Numbered 308, Seventy-fifth Congress, or any agency in the executive branch of the Federal Government authorized under other laws to supervise such training. No business or other establishment providing apprentice or other training on the job to persons eligible for training under this Act shall be approved for training under the provisions of this Act unless such establishment compensates such persons at rates of pay required by applicable State or Federal laws and which are fair and reasonable for any productive labor performed as part of their training and unless such establishment meets all applicable State and Federal statutes and regulations relating to health, safety, and other conditions of labor.

SEC. 10. Persons who have rendered honorable service on active sea duty as officers or members of the crew on or in connection with vessels documented under the laws of the United States or vessels owned by, chartered to, or operated by or for the account or use of, the War Shipping Administrator, for a period of at least six months after December 6, 1941, shall be eligible for education and training under the provisions of this Act. No such person shall be entitled to education or training under this Act unless he shall have received a certificate from the War Shipping Administration, under rules and regulations promulgated by the Administrator of Servicemen's Education and Training, to the effect that he has rendered honorable service in the merchant marine as required by this Act.

SEC. 11. No person shall be eligible for education or training under this Act while he is receiving training or benefits under Public Law 16 of the Seventy-eighth Congress. All payments under the Mustering-Out Payment Act of 1944 shall be suspended in the case of any person during

the time that such person is receiving education or training under the provisions of this Act.

SEC. 12. No department, agency, or officer of the United States in carrying out the provisions of this Act shall exercise any supervision or control over any State educational agency or any educational or training institution with respect to their personnel, curriculum, or methods or materials of instruction.

SEC. 13. There are hereby authorized to be appropriated such sums as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this Act.

SEC. 14. If any provision of this Act or the application of such provision to any person or circumstance shall be held invalid, the validity of the remainder of the Act and the applicability of such provision to other persons or circumstances shall not be affected thereby.

SEC. 15. This Act may be cited as the "Servicemen's Education and Training Act of 1944".

## In the Office

One Registrar, harassed as most of us are with innumerable inquiries about credit for military service and training, has found an extremely useful shortcut by drawing up a form letter which is mailed in reply to each inquiry. The letter is a clear statement of policy, so far as any can yet be made, and has saved so much time and proved so satisfactory both to the sender and the recipients, that he recommends a similar procedure to other Registrars. The form letter follows:

Sgt. John Doe  
147th Field Hospital  
Care Postmaster, San Francisco

My dear Mr. Doe:

So many inquiries are coming to my office concerning college credit for training in the armed forces, that it has seemed wise to draw up the following statement, in which I have attempted to give a clear explanation of the status of such credit.

1. *Navy V-12 and Army S.T.P. Units.* Work done in these programs usually carries regular college credit. If this is the case at the institution to which you were assigned, then all that is necessary to have it added to your record here is to request that institution to send us a transcript. If the institution which gave the work does not recognize it as college credit, then your procedure is outlined under paragraph 4 below.

2. *The Armed Forces Institute.* The University allows full credit for college work done under the Armed Forces Institute. This includes the correspondence work offered by the Institute itself, or by any of the participating colleges. When such work is completed, ask the Armed Forces Institute to send us a transcript of your credit. It will be added to your record here.

3. *Other College Work.* Certain work, other than V-12 or A.S.T.P., done on other campuses is recognized by the institutions which give it as regular college work. For instance, instruction in meteorology or in advanced radio is frequently allowed full credit by the institution giving the courses. If you have taken such work in an accredited institution, have a transcript sent to us and we will add the credit to your record here. The registrar of the institution where the work was done can tell you whether or not his institution recognizes the work for credit.

4. *Non-Credit College Work.* Some courses given on college campuses are not recognized as college work. For example, the work of the Naval Radio School on our own campus carries no college credit. If you have had work which is not accepted by the college which gives it, but which you

Tuesday at 1	Mon., Feb. 21,	2:00 - 4:00
" " 2	Soft., " 26,	2:00 - 4:00
" " 3	Wed., " 23,	2:00 - 4:00

### SPECIAL PERIODS

#### SCHOOL OF MUSIC: Individual Instruction in Applied Music.

Individual examinations by appointment will be given for all applied music courses (Individual Instruction) elected for credit in any unit of the University. For time and place of examinations, see Bulletin Board at the School of Music.

#### COLLEGE OF LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND THE ARTS:

Political Science 1, 2, 51, 161	Mon., Feb. 21,	8:00 - 10:00
Speech 31, 32		
French 1, 2, 11, 31, 32, 53, 61, 91, 92, 153	Tues., Feb. 22,	10:30 - 12:30
English 1, 2		
Economics 51, 52, 53, 54, 101	Wed., Feb. 23,	2:00 - 4:00
Botany 1		
Zoology 1		
Psychology 31-Lecture Group 1 (Master) only	Thu., Feb. 24,	8:00 - 10:00
Sociology 51, 54		
Spanish 1, 2, 31, 32		
German 1, 2, 31, 32	Fri., Feb. 25,	2:00 - 4:00



1. The subject

2. The object

3. The method

4. The results

5. The conclusion

6. The discussion

7. The summary

8. The references

9. The appendix

10. The index

11. The bibliography

12. The list of figures

13. The list of tables

14. The list of abbreviations

15. The list of symbols

16. The list of units

17. The list of constants

18. The list of formulas

19. The list of equations

20. The list of diagrams

21. The list of graphs

22. The list of maps

23. The list of photographs

24. The list of illustrations

25. The list of appendices

26. The list of references

27. The list of bibliography

28. The list of figures

29. The list of tables

30. The list of abbreviations

31. The list of symbols

32. The list of units

33. The list of constants

34. The list of formulas

35. The list of equations

36. The list of diagrams

37. The list of graphs

38. The list of maps

39. The list of photographs

40. The list of illustrations

41. The list of appendices

42. The list of references

43. The list of bibliography

44. The list of figures

45. The list of tables

46. The list of abbreviations

47. The list of symbols

48. The list of units

49. The list of constants

50. The list of formulas

51. The list of equations

52. The list of diagrams

53. The list of graphs

54. The list of maps

55. The list of photographs

56. The list of illustrations

57. The list of appendices

58. The list of references

59. The list of bibliography

60. The list of figures

61. The list of tables

62. The list of abbreviations

63. The list of symbols

64. The list of units

65. The list of constants

66. The list of formulas

67. The list of equations

68. The list of diagrams

69. The list of graphs

70. The list of maps

71. The list of photographs

72. The list of illustrations

73. The list of appendices

74. The list of references

75. The list of bibliography

76. The list of figures

77. The list of tables

78. The list of abbreviations

79. The list of symbols

80. The list of units

81. The list of constants

82. The list of formulas

83. The list of equations

84. The list of diagrams

85. The list of graphs

86. The list of maps

87. The list of photographs

88. The list of illustrations

89. The list of appendices

90. The list of references

91. The list of bibliography

92. The list of figures

93. The list of tables

94. The list of abbreviations

95. The list of symbols

96. The list of units

97. The list of constants

98. The list of formulas

99. The list of equations

100. The list of diagrams

101. The list of graphs

102. The list of maps

103. The list of photographs

104. The list of illustrations

105. The list of appendices

106. The list of references

107. The list of bibliography

108. The list of figures

109. The list of tables

110. The list of abbreviations

111. The list of symbols

112. The list of units

113. The list of constants

114. The list of formulas

115. The list of equations

116. The list of diagrams

117. The list of graphs

118. The list of maps

119. The list of photographs

120. The list of illustrations

121. The list of appendices

122. The list of references

123. The list of bibliography

124. The list of figures

125. The list of tables

126. The list of abbreviations

127. The list of symbols

128. The list of units

129. The list of constants

130. The list of formulas

131. The list of equations

132. The list of diagrams

133. The list of graphs

134. The list of maps

135. The list of photographs

136. The list of illustrations

137. The list of appendices

138. The list of references

139. The list of bibliography

140. The list of figures

141. The list of tables

142. The list of abbreviations

143. The list of symbols

144. The list of units

145. The list of constants

146. The list of formulas

147. The list of equations

148. The list of diagrams

149. The list of graphs

150. The list of maps

151. The list of photographs

152. The list of illustrations

153. The list of appendices

154. The list of references

155. The list of bibliography

156. The list of figures

157. The list of tables

158. The list of abbreviations

159. The list of symbols

160. The list of units

161. The list of constants

162. The list of formulas

163. The list of equations

164. The list of diagrams

165. The list of graphs

166. The list of maps

167. The list of photographs

168. The list of illustrations

169. The list of appendices

170. The list of references

171. The list of bibliography

172. The list of figures

173. The list of tables

174. The list of abbreviations

175. The list of symbols

176. The list of units

177. The list of constants

178. The list of formulas

179. The list of equations

180. The list of diagrams

181. The list of graphs

182. The list of maps

183. The list of photographs

184. The list of illustrations

185. The list of appendices

186. The list of references

187. The list of bibliography

188. The list of figures

189. The list of tables

190. The list of abbreviations

191. The list of symbols

192. The list of units

193. The list of constants

194. The list of formulas

195. The list of equations

196. The list of diagrams

197. The list of graphs

198. The list of maps

199. The list of photographs

200. The list of illustrations

201. The list of appendices

202. The list of references

203. The list of bibliography

204. The list of figures

205. The list of tables

206. The list of abbreviations

207. The list of symbols

208. The list of units

209. The list of constants

210. The list of formulas

211. The list of equations

212. The list of diagrams

213. The list of graphs

214. The list of maps

215. The list of photographs

216. The list of illustrations

217. The list of appendices

218. The list of references

219. The list of bibliography

220. The list of figures

221. The list of tables

222. The list of abbreviations

223. The list of symbols

224. The list of units

225. The list of constants

226. The list of formulas

227. The list of equations

228. The list of diagrams

229. The list of graphs

230. The list of maps

231. The list of photographs

232. The list of illustrations

233. The list of appendices

234. The list of references

235. The list of bibliography

236. The list of figures

237. The list of tables

238. The list of abbreviations

239. The list of symbols

240. The list of units

241. The list of constants

242. The list of formulas

243. The list of equations

244. The list of diagrams

245. The list of graphs

246. The list of maps

247. The list of photographs

248. The list of illustrations

249. The list of appendices

250. The list of references

251. The list of bibliography

252. The list of figures

253. The list of tables

254. The list of abbreviations

255. The list of symbols

256. The list of units

257. The list of constants

258. The list of formulas

259. The list of equations

260. The list of diagrams

261. The list of graphs

262. The list of maps

263. The list of photographs

264. The list of illustrations

265. The list of appendices

266. The list of references

267. The list of bibliography

268. The list of figures

269. The list of tables

270. The list of abbreviations

271. The list of symbols

272. The list of units

273. The list of constants

274. The list of formulas

275. The list of equations

276. The list of diagrams

277. The list of graphs

278. The list of maps

279. The list of photographs

280. The list of illustrations

281. The list of appendices

282. The list of references

283. The list of bibliography

284. The list of figures

285. The list of tables

286. The list of abbreviations

287. The list of symbols

288. The list of units

289. The list of constants

290. The list of formulas

291. The list of equations

292. The list of diagrams

think is worth some college credit, then you should apply to the Armed Forces Institute at Madison, Wisconsin, for a blank on which to request a Report of Educational Achievement. The Armed Forces Institute will help you get the work evaluated in terms of college credit, even if the Institute had nothing to do with giving the work. When the Report of Educational Achievement is filed in my office, we will determine what, if any, college credit is to be allowed.

5. *Training in Service.* Many service men and women are receiving training in fields which may be the equivalent of college work. For instance, a radio operator, a pharmacist's mate, or an interpreter will have acquired special knowledge and skills which may entitle him to some college credit. If you think you are eligible for such credit, apply to the Armed Forces Institute, as mentioned in paragraph 4 above, for a form on which to file a request for a Report of Educational Achievement. When the Report is filed with us, we will determine what, if any, college credit can be granted.

6. *University Requirements.* The University desires to be as generous as possible in meeting the needs of students who wish to qualify for graduation but who are prevented by wartime exigencies from fulfilling all University requirements. Some requirements we are willing to set aside or modify; others are so fundamental that no degree can be awarded until they are met. We have adopted no blanket policy, but will deal with each case individually. If you think you might qualify for a degree, write to me about it. I will report your exact standing to you, after necessary consultation with Deans, advisers, or department heads.

Please write me again if you have any unanswered questions. State as specifically as you can the types of training you have had and the degree or curriculum to which you hope to apply it.

With all good wishes, I am

Sincerely yours,  
RICHARD ROE  
*Registrar*

## The Question Box

1. *When credit is allowed for applied music toward the requirements for a B.A. degree, what should be the basis for determining the amount of credit: the 30-minute private lesson unit, the number of hours of practice per lesson, or both? For one 30-minute lesson per week, together with six 50-minute periods of practice per week, should the amount of credit allowed be one or two semester credits?"*

The National Association of Schools of Music defines credit in applied music as follows:

"One semester hour credit shall be given for each three hours per week of practice, plus the necessary individual instruction, with a maximum of six credits per semester allowed for the major subject in applied music. It is understood that the credit is not earned unless the final examination is satisfactorily passed. Students shall be required to take a minimum of one hour (60 minutes) individual instruction per week in the major subjects in applied music throughout each year of residence."

In general it is for the institution to determine the amount of work to be covered during the semester in one weekly 30-minute private lesson and assign credit in line with that granted in other subjects such as English, etc. The minimum amount of practice can be suggested and final results checked through the final examination at which time the faculty committee is usually present.

The answer to the question would seem to be that the maximum credit allowed for six periods of practice per week would be two credits per semester.

The case in point is a little irregular, as six periods of practice a week would normally be accompanied by an hour of private instruction. If the teacher is able to organize the lesson so effectively that it is possible to cover in a half hour of private instruction the material studied in six hours per week of practice, I do not feel that the student should be penalized by receiving less than two semester hours' credit per semester. The problem seems to be an educational one, rather than a question of credit.

A. H. LARSON, *Secretary-Registrar*  
Eastman School of Music  
University of Rochester

2. *A student has had two years of high school Spanish with average grades. He has 16½ high school units exclusive of Physical Education. He wishes to repeat first year Spanish in college. How much, if any, credit should be allowed? Would he be permitted to forfeit one high school unit and earn five hours for the second semester of Spanish? Would he*

*be allowed to earn the ten hours toward graduation regardless of the high school credit?*

In general, the old practice of disallowing either high school or college credit in such cases is being modified to permit at least partial credit. (See Dr. Cheydleur's article herein.) One institution, at least, allows full credit if the course is repeated at the instance of the department, but not if it is repeated on the student's initiative. Since Ohio State has a regulation which seems fairly typical, Miss Cockins was asked to answer this question, and in reply sent the following excerpt from the university rules:

#### REPEATING HIGH SCHOOL WORK

If a student enters a course that presupposes a unit in the high school in the same subject (a course in foreign language or Chemistry 411 or 416) and finds himself unable to carry this course, the Dean on his own initiative, or upon request of the department concerned, may transfer the student to a more elementary course. Upon completion of this course, the student will receive three hours credit for each five hours of normal credit in the course, the total reduction to be two hours credit for each unit of high school work repeated.

3. *Should colleges grant free transcripts, in unlimited numbers, to men and women in military service?*

This question was asked during the open forum at the last convention, and the show of hands indicated that such is the practice among most institutions. It is true that here and there a student will abuse the privilege, but in general it seems better to permit such abuse than to charge a fee for a transcript which is to be used in connection with the performance of a patriotic duty.

Note: The questionnaires recently sent out to about a third of the membership of the Association (they go out three times a year, to a different list of Registrars each time) brought in a great many questions about credit for military training and experience. Since the JOURNAL is attempting to carry articles dealing with every phase of this question, and since it is to occupy much of the attention of the convention in Chicago, these inquiries have not been referred to the Question Box for answer.

## Reported to Us

Dr. Forrest E. Long, Chairman of the Department of Secondary Education at New York University, has been named Director of the School and College Division of the National Safety Council. He succeeds Miss Marian L. Telford, who has moved to the Council's Field Organization Department. In his new capacity, Dr. Long assumes active direction of the Council's expanded program among schools and colleges.

Mary Louise Charles, formerly secretary and test assistant in the Guidance Department of the New Rochelle (N.Y.) Public Schools, has been appointed Assistant Registrar at Skidmore College.

Sister Mary Richard has been appointed Dean of Marygrove College, Detroit, Michigan.

W. R. Mitchell, Registrar and Professor of Education at Missouri Valley College, Marshall, Missouri, has been elected Dean of the College. He will continue to serve also as Registrar.

Ruth C. Rasmussen has been appointed Registrar of Carbon Junior College, Price, Utah, succeeding Meta Kamper, resigned.

Dr. C. E. Evans, for thirty-one years President of Southwest Texas State Teachers College, retired last summer with the title of President Emeritus. He was succeeded by Dr. John Garland Flowers.

E. I. F. Williams, Registrar of Heidelberg College, Tiffin, Ohio, has been reappointed Recorder-Treasurer of Kappa Delta Pi and also Editor of the *Educational Forum* and the Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series.

Miss Gladys Riegel has been appointed Assistant Registrar at Heidelberg College.

G. W. Swanbeck, Registrar of Augustana College, Rock Island, Illinois, is perhaps the only Registrar to hold a Private Pilot's License and fly his own plane. At last reports he had logged 155 hours of flying time. His three-year-old son is a frequent passenger on his flights.

Ralph E. Adams has added the title of Executive Secretary of the University of Alabama to that of Dean of Admissions and Records. The new office replaces the office of Registrar.



William Marshall French, formerly Dean of Muskingum College, has been inaugurated as the eighth President of Hastings College, Hastings, Nebraska.

Lillian Spindler, Registrar of Marietta College, Marietta, Ohio, was married during the summer to Mr. T. Gale Sinclair.

Clyde B. Stover, Registrar of Gettysburg College since 1910, has become Registrar Emeritus. His successor is Charles R. Wolfe.

President Byron S. Hollinshead, of Scranton-Keystone Junior College, La Plume, Pennsylvania, has been granted a year's leave of absence. He will serve as co-ordinator for the Harvard University Committee on the Objectives of a General Education in a Free Society. Blake Tewksbury, Registrar, has been named Vice-President and Registrar, and will serve as acting head of the college during Mr. Hollinshead's absence.

J. Russell Robinson, Registrar of Peabody College and President of the A.A.C.R., has recently been elected secretary of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Olive Frantz, Registrar of North Central College, Naperville, Illinois, resigned last summer. C. C. Hower, Professor of Classics, is Acting Registrar.

Dr. C. M. Granskou, formerly President of Augustana College, Sioux Falls, South Dakota, is now President of St. Olaf College, Northfield, Minnesota.

Mary Washington College, Fredericksburg, Virginia, has a new Registrar in the person of Louis C. Guenther, formerly Registrar of Howard College.

We learn with deep regret of the death on December 29 of Miss Mary E. Morris, Assistant University Examiner, Ohio State University. Miss Morris had been a member of the staff at Ohio State since 1921, and was widely known in educational circles. During the first World War she served in France with the American Red Cross.

Frank O. Holt, Dean of the Extension Division, University of Wisconsin, has been made Director of a new Department of Public Service, created to "expand the service of the University to the entire state." Dr. Holt was formerly Registrar at Wisconsin, and was President of the A.A.C.R. in 1933-34.

Conrad Vernon, formerly Registrar of Temple (Texas) Junior College, is now Dean of that institution. O. C. Wilks is the new Registrar.

George Elliott Dutton, Dean of the School of Arts and Sciences and Registrar, University of Delaware, died on February 29. Dean Dutton, who was sixty-two at the time of his death, had been a member of the Department of English at Delaware since 1911, had headed the department since 1918, and had been dean and registrar since 1923.

Miss Edith D. Cockins, Registrar of Ohio State, President of the Association of Ohio College Registrars, and the only woman who has ever served as President of the A.A.C.R., is accustomed to receiving honors. Even so, she must have been thrilled by the following tribute, which was printed in the program for the Ohio State-Indiana football game last fall, beneath her picture and the title "Salute to a Lady":

"A long while ago a very wise man said that an institution is but the lengthened shadow of a man. This is certainly true of colleges and universities.

Stone walls, ivy, the patina on the copper roofs of buildings, the Tower Clock, the Thompson statue, Mirror Lake, the chimes, the Long Walk—these and other tangibles give substance to the place we call the campus. But it is the men and women who have labored here and given of themselves who have made it what it is and left their imprint on generations of students and alumni.

This was conspicuously true of Dr. W. O. Thompson, fifth president of the University, whose administration covered the years from 1899 to 1925. It was notably true of the late Professor William L. "Billy" Graves, who died recently. It also applies to others, now retired, like former President G. W. Rightmire, former Dean William McPherson, and Professor Emeritus William Lloyd Evans, to name only three.

But today we salute one still in uniform who, under the rules, is "playing" her last season in one of the most important posts on the campus. She is Miss Edith Cockins, registrar, secretary of the faculty, and University editor.

In all the University's history, no other woman and few men have played more important roles. For achievement, for ability, for teamwork, and for vision, she has long since won her "O" in life. By the same token, she belongs on any all-time Ohio State team you can name.

So here's a bow to a gracious lady, an able administrator, a conspicuous servant of the University, and a friend to thousands—Miss Edith D. Cockins."

George A. Bowman, Superintendent of Schools at Youngstown, Ohio, has been appointed President of Kent (Ohio) State University, succeeding K. C. Leebrick.

William C. Jones, Professor of Political Science, University of Oregon, will succeed W. O. Mendenhall as President of Whittier (California) College, upon Dr. Mendenhall's retirement in June.

Dr. Beryl E. Warden, Dean of Students and Director of Personnel, Carnegie Institute of Technology, has been given leave of absence to accept a commission as Lieutenant in the Navy. During his absence John M. Daniels, Director of Admission, will serve as acting Dean of Students and acting Director of the Division of Student Personnel and Welfare. Dean Daniels is also Secretary-Treasurer of the Middle States Association of Collegiate Registrars.

E. H. Heaton, acting Registrar of Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College, has been appointed Registrar, succeeding E. J. Howell. Mr. Howell, who was elected President of the A.A.C.R. in 1941 but resigned to enter the Army, now holds the rank of colonel.

Just at press time we learn of the death of Lloyd Lowndes Friend, which occurred on March 20. Mr. Friend had been a member of the staff of West Virginia University since 1924, first as Director of Admissions and of the Summer session, and since 1929 as Registrar. He retired on March 1 with the title of Registrar Emeritus. He was 69 years old. Before coming to West Virginia University he had been for 15 years State Supervisor of High Schools.

J. Everett Long, formerly Assistant Registrar, has been named acting Registrar, succeeding Mr. Friend.

It is felt that the article on "The United States Armed Forces Institute," (pp. 287-294 *infra*) may be of considerable service to administrators and committees working in various institutions on the problem of military credit. Accordingly, the publisher has been asked to hold the type for this article, and if enough requests for it are received, the JOURNAL will secure reprints to be distributed without charge to those interested. Registrars who would like a few copies for the use of other members of their faculties are invited to write the Editor, or see him at the Convention. This offer expires May 1.

### *Regional Associations*

The Texas Association of Collegiate Registrars met November 23-24 at the Texas Hotel, in Fort Worth, with forty-three members and six visitors in attendance. The general arrangements committee for the occasion was: S. W. Hutton, Texas Christian University, Mrs. Erin C. Hughes, Texas Wesleyan College, Sister Eleanor, Our Lady of Victory College, and Dr. E. H. Hereford, North Texas Agricultural College.

Addresses were given Tuesday afternoon on "War-Time Problems in the Registrar's Office" by R. L. Brewer, Southern Methodist University, and Pearl A. Neas, Southwestern University, and reports on "Our Experience with the New Program and Schedule for the Armed Services" by E. J. Mathews, University of Texas, H. L. Heaton, Texas A. & M. College, and Francis W. Emerson, Texas State College for Women.

That evening after music by students of Texas Wesleyan College, Dean E. L. Harvin, Corpus Christi Junior College, spoke on "The Junior College in a Day Like This" and discussions were given by Celeste Kitchen, Lamar College, and Dr. Hereford.

The main address of the session was given Wednesday morning by Dr. L. H. Hubbard, president, Texas State College for Women, on "Post-War Education." The discussion which followed was led by Dr. D. A. Shirley, West Texas State Teachers College.

Officers elected for 1943-44 are: President, Fred H. Junkin, registrar, Schreiner Institute, Kerrville; Vice-president, H. L. Heaton, registrar, Texas A. & M. College; Secretary-Treasurer, Ailese Parten, registrar, Mary Hardin-Baylor College. S. W. Hutton, registrar, Texas Christian University, the retiring president, will also serve on the executive committee.

## The American Association of Junior Colleges

For three days, January 11-13, 1944, there was lively discussion of the present and future of the junior college at the twenty-fourth annual meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges, held in Cincinnati, Ohio. In a special message sent to this convention President Roosevelt wrote: "The junior college has now become a robust youngster in the family of American educational institutions. My particular interest at present centers in the part that the junior college may play in providing suitable education for many of the returning soldiers and sailors." President Roosevelt emphasized the importance of the dual nature of such education—vocational and general. "These men and women," he continued, "will wish, in many cases, terminal courses which combine technical or other vocational preparation with courses which assure a basic understanding of the issues confronted by them as American and world citizens. It seems possible, therefore, that the junior college may furnish the answer to a good many of these needs."

At the annual meeting special consideration was given to the making of post-war plans. The first report of the national Committee on Post-war Plans of the Association was presented by the chairman, President John L. Lounsbury, of San Bernardino Valley Junior College. "The junior college, conceived as the people's college," the report stated, "is the logical educational center for developing the varied types of training which will be needed by a great group of young adults returning to the ways of peacetime living." It considered specifically the educational needs of three groups, (1) the millions of young men and women to be demobilized from the armed services, (2) the other millions now engaged in wartime industries, and (3) the thousands of oncoming high school students. Furthermore, the report stated that the educational needs of these three large groups of young people will demand training in (1) how to prepare for, secure, and hold a job in a peacetime world, (2) how to be retrained in new methods of production in a new world economy, (3) how to establish and manage a home and family, (4) how to live in a world at peace, and (5) how to create for themselves high levels of personal adequacy and spiritual adjustment.

Another significant report was that of the Administrative Committee of the Commission on Terminal Education, presented by Mr. L. L. Medsker, assistant director of the Bureau of Occupational Research, Chicago Public Schools. The study of the problem of terminal education, according to the recent report, "may be divided into two parts, one, a one-year exploratory study in 1940, and two, a three-year continuation study beginning in 1941. The Exploratory Study was, as the name implies, an effort to collect certain



data which would be indicative of the scope of and possibilities for terminal education and which would serve as a guide for a longer study. It was carried on under the directorship of Dr. Eells. Among the publications emerging from it were the three monographs, *The Bibliography of Junior College Terminal Education*, *The Status of Terminal Education*, and *Why Junior College Terminal Education?*

"The Continuation Study, which is the main item in this report, was organized on the basis of experimentation and implementation. Among other items it provided for a series of nine individual institutional studies, each dealing with an important procedure in connection with terminal education. The nine institutions selected to make these studies were chosen by the General Education Board.

"We have planned for two reports for 1944 as follows:

1. A pamphlet style, graphic, question-and-answer type of report to be published by the Administrative Committee by July 1, 1944. This is to be a survey of the important findings of the whole study in such a way as to challenge thinking on terminal education. It is to be in popular style for quick, easy reading.

2. A one-volume report of the nine institutional studies. The object of this report is to present in one outstanding volume an overview of the nine studies, their significant findings and particularly their workable techniques which may be of value to other institutions."

Officers of the Association were elected as follows: president, Roy W. Goddard, Dean of Rochester Junior College, Minnesota; vice-president, Anne D. McLaughlin, Registrar of Georgetown Visitation Junior College, Washington, D.C.; executive secretary, Walter Crosby Eells, Washington, D.C.; convention secretary, Theodore H. Wilson, University of Baltimore Junior College, Maryland; additional members of the executive committee to serve until 1947, Jesse P. Bogue, Green Mountain Junior College, Vermont, David B. Pugh, Supervisor of Undergraduate Centers, Pennsylvania State College.

The address of the headquarters and office of the executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges has been changed to 1201 Nineteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

J.A.H.

# Program



*Thirty-First Convention*



American Association  
of  
Collegiate Registrars



April 25-27, 1944  
The Stevens Hotel  
Chicago, Illinois

# Officers and Committees of the Association

## OFFICERS, 1943-1944

J. R. Robinson, President .....	Peabody College
Ernest C. Miller, First Vice President .....	University of Chicago
Alma H. Preinkert, Second Vice President .....	University of Maryland
R. F. Thomason, Secretary .....	University of Tennessee
S. Woodson Canada, Treasurer .....	University of Missouri
William C. Smyser, Editor .....	Miami University
Fred L. Kerr, Chairman of the Committee on Special Projects ..	University of Arkansas
A. H. Larson, Member of Executive Committee, ex-officio .....	
.....	Eastman School of Music of the University of Rochester

## STANDING AND SPECIAL COMMITTEES

### COMMITTEE ON SPECIAL PROJECTS

Fred L. Kerr, Chairman .....	University of Arkansas
Leo M. Chamberlain .....	University of Kentucky
Emma E. Deters .....	University of Buffalo
Edward J. Grant .....	Columbia University
E. J. Mathews .....	University of Texas
Curtis Merriman .....	University of Wisconsin
J. P. Mitchell .....	Stanford University
William C. Smyser .....	Miami University
George P. Tuttle .....	University of Illinois

### REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS COMMITTEE

Enock C. Dyrness, Chairman .....	Wheaton College
T. A. Bickerstaff .....	University of Mississippi
A. C. Conger .....	Ohio Wesleyan University
Max Fichtenbaum .....	University of Texas
James A. Gannett .....	University of Maine
William S. Hoffman .....	The Pennsylvania State College
E. B. Lemon .....	Oregon State College
R. E. McWhinnie .....	University of Wyoming
G. E. Metz .....	Clemson College
T. E. Pettengill .....	University of Minnesota
Hugh T. Ramsey .....	Lincoln Memorial University
W. P. Shofstall .....	Stephens College

### BOARD OF EDITORS OF THE JOURNAL

William Craig Smyser, Editor .....	Miami University
John A. Anderson .....	Pasadena Junior College
S. Woodson Canada .....	University of Missouri
Leo M. Chamberlain .....	University of Kentucky
Emma E. Deters .....	University of Buffalo
Enock C. Dyrness .....	Wheaton College
J. Anthony Humphreys .....	Woodrow Wilson Junior College
Alma Preinkert .....	University of Maryland
George W. Rosenlof .....	University of Nebraska
Robert L. Williams .....	University of Michigan

## BUDGET COMMITTEE

A. H. Larson, Chairman .. Eastman School of Music of the University of Rochester  
 J. R. Robinson ..... Peabody College  
 The President Elect .....

## COMMITTEE ON OFFICE FORMS AND EQUIPMENT

Charles E. Harrell, Chairman ..... Indiana University  
 Marjorie Cutler ..... University of Denver  
 J. E. Fellows ..... University of Tulsa  
 C. Z. Leshner ..... University of Arizona  
 G. S. Patterson ..... Wake Forest College  
 Margaret Scott ..... Reed College  
 Joy Secor ..... Smith College

## COMMITTEE ON CONVENTION EXHIBITORS

J. A. Humphreys, Chairman ..... Woodrow Wilson Junior College  
 Charles E. Harrell ..... Indiana University  
 Donald H. Steward ..... Central Y.M.C.A. College

*Monday, April 24, 1944*

7:30-10:30 P.M. REGISTRATION OF DELEGATES AND GUESTS

8:30-10:30 P.M. INFORMAL RECEPTION FOR DELEGATES AND GUESTS

*Tuesday, April 25, 1944*

9:00 A.M.-12:30 P.M.

MR. J. R. ROBINSON, George Peabody College,  
 and

MR. GEORGE P. TUTTLE, University of Illinois  
 Presiding

Organization of courses, study requirements, instructional personnel, instructional equipment and procedures in Army technical and service schools, in comparison with similar items in colleges and universities—Lieutenant Colonel Thomas R. Palfrey, Training Division, Sixth Service Command

Naval Training Schools that provide training at the college level—exclusive of the regular Navy College Program (V-12)—and the Navy off-duty education program—Lieutenant Commander Earl J. McGrath, Educational Services Section, Training Division, Bureau of Naval Personnel.

A factual report by the A.A.C.R. Sub-Committee on Military Credit

(a) Policies adopted by institutions relating to credit for training and for education in the Armed Forces.

(b) Evaluations made by institutions of Army and Navy courses offered on their own campuses involving the use of the institutions' teaching personnel. Not including ASTP and V-12—

Mr. T. E. Pettengill, University of Minnesota

2:00 P.M.

MISS ALMA H. PREINKERT  
University of Maryland  
Presiding

*General Theme—Methods available to aid institutions in evaluating training and education in the Armed Forces—*

*The Program of the Armed Forces Institute—*Lieutenant Colonel Herbert G. Espy, Education Branch of the War Department; Lieutenant Colonel Carl W. Hansen, Commandant, U. S. Armed Forces Institute

*The Program of the American Council on Education—*Mr. George P. Tuttle, University of Illinois

*Question Period—*

7:30 P.M.

*Forum for New Registrars—*Mr. Ira M. Smith and Mr. Robert L. Williams, University of Michigan

Wednesday, April 26, 1944

9:00 A.M.-12:30 P.M.

MR. E. C. MILLER  
University of Chicago  
Presiding

*Some Needed Adjustments in University Procedures—*Dr. Alexander G. Ruthven, President, University of Michigan

*The Contribution of Higher Education During the Transition from War to Peace—*Dr. Floyd W. Reeves, Professor of Administration, University of Chicago

Discussion, led by George W. Rosenlof, University of Nebraska

*Election of Officers—*

2:00 P.M.

MR. H. E. ELDER  
Indiana State Teachers College  
and

MR. T. E. PETTENGILL  
University of Minnesota  
co-chairmen

*Admission of Non-High School Graduates—*Mr. C. E. Dammon, Director of Admissions, Purdue University

*The Influence of World War II upon Teacher Education—*Mr. S. L. McGraw, Registrar, Concord State Teachers College

*Predictive Criteria for Selection of ASTP Students—*Mr. R. B. Thompson, Registrar, University of Utah

*Acceleration: Purposes, Means and Outcomes—*Miss Edith D. Cockins, Registrar, Ohio State University

*Discussion*

7:30 P.M.

*Open Forum—*Mr. Ira M. Smith and Mr. Robert L. Williams, University of Michigan



Thursday, April 27, 1944

9:00 A.M.-12:30 P.M.

DR. R. F. THOMASON  
University of Tennessee  
Presiding

*Special Studies for the Registrar*—Dr. A. J. Brumbaugh, Dean of Students, University of Chicago

*Question Box*, Directed by Committee—Curtis Merriman, Chairman, University of Wisconsin; Elsie Brenneman, Illinois State Normal University; Donald A. Grossman, University of Illinois; Ralph E. Hill, University of Louisville; L. M. Hruka, Herzl Junior College; Ella L. Olesen, University of Idaho; George W. Rosenlof, University of Nebraska; A. F. Scribner, Valparaiso University

*Business Session*

*Reports of Standing Committees—*

Executive Committee  
Budget Committee  
Committee on Special Projects  
Regional Associations Committee  
Committee on Office Forms and Equipment  
Committee on Convention Exhibitors

*Reports of Association Officers—*

Editor of the JOURNAL  
Second Vice-President  
Treasurer

*Reports of Special Committees—*

Committee on Local Arrangements and Registration  
Committee on Resolutions  
Committee on Transcripts for ASTP

*New Business*

*Introduction of New President*

*Announcement of Place for next Convention*

*Adjournment*

CONVENTION COMMITTEES

*Committee on Nominations*

A. H. Larson, Chairman .. Eastman School of Music of the University of Rochester  
Edward J. Grant ..... Columbia University  
William S. Hoffman ..... The Pennsylvania State College  
K. P. R. Neville ..... University of Western Ontario  
J. G. Quick ..... University of Pittsburgh

*Committee on Resolutions*

R. E. McWhinnie, Chairman ..... University of Wyoming  
Lloyd W. Chapin ..... Georgia School of Technology  
John G. Kelly ..... Winthrop College  
Ella L. Olesen ..... University of Idaho  
Clarice Slusher ..... Virginia Polytechnic Institute

*Committee on Appraisal*

George W. Rosenlof, Chairman .....	University of Nebraska
Asa Carter .....	Bradley Institute
Katherine E. Hilliker .....	Boston University
S. L. McGraw .....	Concord State Teachers College
Maple Moores .....	University of Kentucky

*Committee on Local Arrangements and Registration*

J. A. Humphreys, Chairman .....	Woodrow Wilson Junior College
E. C. Dyrness .....	Wheaton College
Katharine George .....	Northwestern University
Agnes J. Kaufman .....	Illinois Institute of Technology
J. M. McCallister .....	Herzl Junior College
A. F. Scribner .....	Valparaiso University
B. J. Steggert .....	Loyola University
D. H. Steward .....	Central Y.M.C.A. College
Valerie C. Wickhem .....	University of Chicago

## SCHEDULE OF COMMITTEE MEETINGS

*Monday*

- 12:00 M. Executive Luncheon
- 1:30 P.M. Executive Committee
- 3:30 P.M. Committee on Special Projects
- 7:30 P.M. Board of Editors
- 7:30 P.M. Committee on Office Forms

*Tuesday*

- 12:00 M. Committee on Nominations
- 4:30 P.M. Executive Committee, Regional Associations Committee, and Regional Delegates

*Wednesday*

- 11:45 A.M. Committee on Resolutions
- 5:00 P.M. Budget Committee
- 8:30 P.M. Old and New Executive Committee

## Directory of Regional Associations

(Changes should be reported promptly to the Regional Associations Editor)

### ALABAMA COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS ASSOCIATION

President, J. F. Glazner, Jacksonville State Teachers College, Jacksonville  
Secretary-Treasurer, Eva Wilson, University of Alabama, University

### ARKANSAS ASSOCIATION OF REGISTRARS

President, G. Y. Short, Arkansas State Teachers College, Conway  
Secretary, Mrs. Clarine Longstreth, Little Rock Junior College, Little Rock

### CHICAGO CONFERENCE OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Alice J. Griffin, Wright Junior College, Chicago  
Secretary-Treasurer, Velma Davis, University of Illinois, Medical School, Chicago

### COLORADO-WYOMING ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Lucy E. Spicer, Western State College, Gunnison, Colorado  
Secretary-Treasurer, Dorothy Gelhaus, Adams State Teachers College, Alamosa, Colorado

### ILLINOIS ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Valerie C. Wickhem, University of Chicago  
Secretary-Treasurer, Mrs. Gretchen Happ, The Principia

### INDIANA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Veneta J. Kunter, DePauw University, Greencastle  
Secretary-Treasurer, Stanley M. Norris, Arthur Jordan Conservatory of Music, Butler University, Indianapolis

### KANSAS ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Stanlee V. Dalton, Fort Hays Kansas State College, Hays  
Secretary, Sister Ann Elizabeth, The Saint Mary College, Xavier

### KENTUCKY ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Howard S. Higdon, Campbellsville College, Campbellsville  
Secretary-Treasurer, Jessie Wilson, University of Kentucky, Lexington

### LOUISIANA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Carmel V. Discon, Loyola University, New Orleans

### MICHIGAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, R. S. Linton, Michigan State College, East Lansing  
Secretary, Florence Donahue, University of Detroit

### MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, William R. Howell, Washington College, Chestertown, Maryland  
Secretary-Treasurer, J. M. Daniels, Carnegie Inst. of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

### MISSISSIPPI ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Mary Pulley, Mississippi Southern College, Hattiesburg  
Secretary, Annie McBride, Belhaven College, Jackson

### MISSOURI ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, L. A. Eubank, Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville  
Secretary, Orpha Stockard, Cottey College, Nevada

### NEBRASKA BRANCH AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, G. W. Rosenlof, University of Nebraska, Lincoln

### NORTH CAROLINA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, H. R. Eggers, Appalachian State Teachers College, Boone  
Secretary-Treasurer, Annette McNeely, Salem College, Winston-Salem

**NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS**

President, S. C. Larson, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa  
Secretary-Treasurer, A. H. Parrott, North Dakota Agricultural College, Fargo, N.D.

**OHIO ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS**

President, Edith Cockins, Ohio State University, Columbus  
Secretary-Treasurer, Edith Stanley, Oberlin College, Oberlin

**OKLAHOMA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS**

President, J. E. Fellows, University of Tulsa, Tulsa  
Secretary, Gladys Meanor, Northern Oklahoma Junior College, Tonkawa

**PACIFIC COAST ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS**

President, Douglas V. McClane, Whitman College, Walla Walla, Washington  
Secretary, Doris Dozier, Mills College, Oakland, California

**SOUTH CAROLINA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS**

President, Robert C. Brownlee, Erskine College, Due West  
Secretary, Dora Harrington, Winthrop College, Rock Hill

**SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS**

President, John G. Kelly, Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina  
Secretary, Mary A. Robertson, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, Alabama

**TENNESSEE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS**

President, Hugh T. Ramsey, Lincoln Memorial University, Harrogate

**TEXAS ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS**

President, Fred H. Junkin, Schreiner Institute, Kerrville  
Secretary-Treasurer, Ailese Parten, Mary Hardin-Baylor College, Belton

**UTAH ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS**

President, Ronald B. Thompson, University of Utah, Salt Lake City  
Secretary, Jeanne M. Home, University of Utah, Salt Lake City

**VIRGINIA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS**

President, Clarice Slusher, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg  
Secretary, Julius F. Prufer, Roanoke College, Salem

**WISCONSIN ASSOCIATION OF REGISTRARS**

President, R. G. McMahon, State Teachers College, Oshkosh  
Secretary, Sister Mary Frances, Mount Mary College, Milwaukee

## Employment Service

Notices must be accompanied by a remittance in full in favor of *The American Association of Collegiate Registrars* and should be sent to the Editor in care of the *Office of the Registrar, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio*.

Notices will be inserted in the order of their receipt.

Rates: For four insertions, limited to not more than fifty words, including the address, two dollars. Additional insertions at the regular rate. Extra space will be charged at the rate of five cents a word.

In printing these advertisements the Association assumes no obligation as to qualifications of prospective employees or of responsibility of employers.

In making this page available to those seeking personnel and to those seeking employment, the Association expects that at least some reply will be made to all those answering announcements.

**ADVANCEMENT WANTED:**—Man, age, 48, A.M. and Ph.D. in education. Now employed as director of personnel service and registrar, but interested in new position. Qualified in various functions: dean, personnel service, registrar, examiner, admissions officer. Has had experience of many years, including work as dean, director of personnel service, registrar, teacher of psychology and education in large private and public colleges. Also some experience in government service and business. Reply T, care Editor. (3)

**ADVANCEMENT WANTED:**—College and former public school administrator desires position with larger responsibilities as dean or registrar. Ph.D. in education. Residence in Midwest, East, and West. Experienced in personnel services, academic programs, public relations, student publications, teaching, admissions. Now a college registrar with additional administrative duties. Address B, care Editor. (2)

**ADVANCEMENT WANTED:**—Woman, 28, interested in position as Assistant Registrar or Registrar. A.B. degree, 1935. Graduate work, Columbia University. Six years as Recorder and Associate in Guidance and Personnel in liberal arts college. Reply FQ, care Editor. (3)

**POSITION WANTED:**—Young lady desires position as registrar. B.S. degree. Registrar and teaching experience. Address HB, care Editor. (1)

**POSITION WANTED:**—Man, 37, nine years in ministry, Th.M. degree, desires position: assistant registrar, registrar, student dean, combined or not with teaching Religion in church affiliated college or university, preferably Methodist. Slight experience in college guidance work, as prison psychologist, and as personnel supervisor. Address W, care Editor. (1)

### BUTTON, BUTTON, WHO'S GOT THE BUTTON?

In the last issue of the JOURNAL an effort was made to discover the whereabouts of two copies of Miss Preinkert's "SUMMARY OF THE WORK OF THE REGISTRAR," which Registrar Ira M. Smith, of the University of Michigan, started three years ago on a round of Registrars who had asked for them. They never got back to Mr. Smith, and whoever put the snatch on them is keeping very quiet about it, because the notice in the January JOURNAL brought no response. Now, ladies and gentlemen, that brings under suspicion of unprofessional conduct everyone who was on the original list. Therefore everybody who had one of those manuals and passed it on in due course, or who was on the list and never got the book, is urged to exculpate himself by reporting the facts to Mr. Smith. *Please write him at once, telling him whether you had one of the books, and if you did, to whom you sent it.*



# PHOTOSTAT JUNIOR

REG. U. S. PAT. OFF.

Over  
One  
Hundred  
Colleges  
use  
the  
PHOTOSTAT



Provides  
Facsimile  
Copies  
of  
Academic  
Records

**PHOTOSTAT CORPORATION**

303 STATE STREET, ROCHESTER 4, N. Y.

"PHOTOSTAT" is the trade mark of PHOTOSTAT CORPORATION

## E. A. WRIGHT COMPANY

*Engravers - Printers - Stationers*

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

---

*Specializing in the*  
FINEST STEEL ENGRAVED  
SCHOOL AND COLLEGE DIPLOMAS

Specimens and special designs on request  
Seventy years of continuous service

